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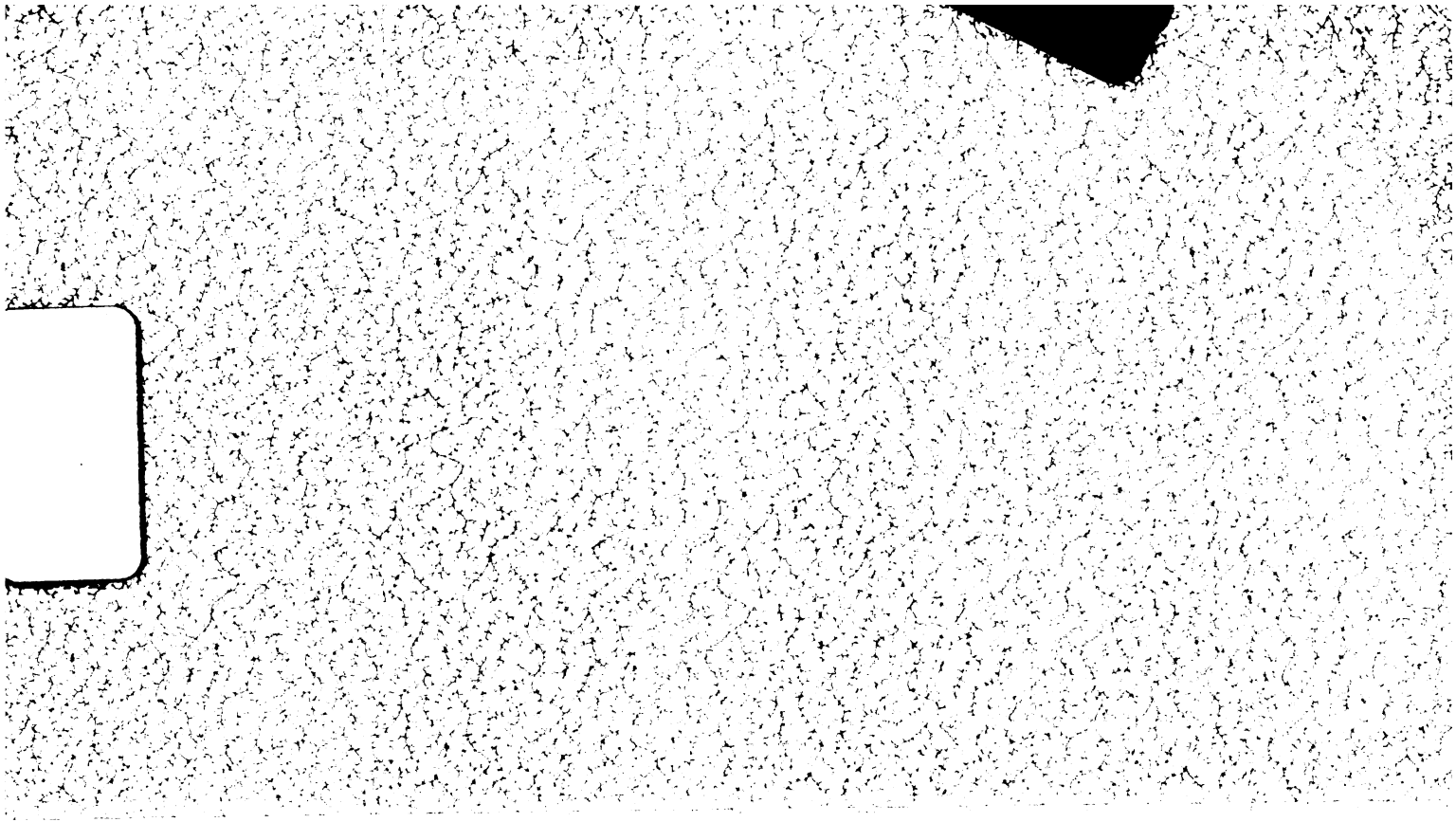

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

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From JANUARY to APRIL, *inclusive,*

M, DCC, XCIX.

With an APPENDIX.

"I take upon me absolutely to condemn the fashionable and prevailing custom of inveighing againſt CRITICS, as the common enemies, the peſts, and incendiaries of the Commonwealth of Wit and Letters. I aſſert, on the contrary, that they are the *Props* and *Pillars* of this Building; and that, without the Encouragement and Propagation of such a Race, we should remain as GOTHIC *Architects* as ever." SHAFTESBURY.

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ERRATA in Vol. XXVIII.

Page 89. l. 26. for τριλάιαν read τριλαῖαν; and l. 27. for vocali read vocali

100. note † for κύκων read κύκλων

272. l. 17. dele the word *line* after '*matre*'

352. the price of Art. 47. should be 2s. 6d.

356. l. 25. dele '*of*' after '*comprehending*'

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1799.

ART. I. *A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean, and round the World;* in which the Coast of North-West America has been carefully examined and accurately surveyed. Undertaken by his Majesty's Command, principally with a View to ascertain the Existence of any navigable Communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans; and performed in the Years 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793, 1794, and 1795, in the Discovery Sloop of War, and Armed Tender Chatham, under the Command of Captain George Vancouver. 4to. 3 Vols. 6l. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

THE advantages of a Fur trade with China from the western coasts of North America, though for a considerable length of time known to the Russians, were very little understood and wholly unattempted by other European nations, before the voyage of Captain Cook to those parts. The information obtained by that excellent navigator not only encouraged mercantile expeditions from most maritime countries, but revived the expectations of those who were advocates for the supposed existence of a N. W. passage through America; and these expectations were strengthened by subsequent discoveries, attributed to some of the late enterprising adventurers. To examine into the truth of these as well as of the more early accounts, and to complete a survey of the western coast of North America from the latitude of 30° N. to 60° north, with the additional purpose of executing the articles of the convention made between the British and the Spanish courts respecting Nootka Sound, were the proposed objects of the expedition of which the narrative is now before us. The voyage had been planned, and preparations for it had been made, some time before these disputes between the courts of London and Madrid arose, and was suspended till the adjustment of them was to take place.

The ill health of the late Captain Vancouver, for some time previously to his decease, is assigned as the cause of the pub-

lication being so long delayed after the return of the ships. His brother, Mr. John Vancouver, has performed the office of editor; and he lays before the public, in an advertisement prefixed to the first volume, the state of the work when the indisposition of his brother rendered him incapable of continuing his attention to it. From this advertisement, it appears that the first and second volumes, (the introduction excepted,) and as far as the 288th page of the third volume, were then printed, and had undergone his examination. He had also prepared the introduction, and a farther part of his journal, to page 408 of the last volume; which comprehended the whole of his geographical discoveries.

In the introduction is given an account of the equipment, and a copy of the Admiralty instructions, dated March 8th, 1791, under which Captain Vancouver sailed. By these orders, he was directed to proceed immediately to the Sandwich Islands in the North Pacific Ocean, there to remain during the ensuing winter; in the course of which it was intended that he should be joined by a vessel, to be dispatched from England, conveying to him the King's orders respecting the possessions on the coast of America that were to be restored to his Majesty's subjects, agreeably to the convention abovementioned: but, (say the instructions,) "if no such orders should be received by you previous to the end of January 1792, you are not to wait for them at the Sandwich Islands, but to proceed, in such course as you may judge most expedient for the examination of the coast abovementioned," &c.

The language of the instructions evinces that strong hopes were entertained of a communication being discovered, between the Atlantic ocean and the sea, west of America; as appears by the following extract:

"You are therefore hereby required and directed to pay a particular attention to the examination of the supposed straits of Juan de Fuca, said to be situated between 48° and 49° north latitude, and to lead to an opening through which the sloop Washington is reported to have passed in 1789, and to have come out again to the northward of Nootka. The discovery of a near communication between any such sea or strait, and any river running into, or from the lake of the woods, would be particularly useful.

"If you should fail of discovering any such inlet, as is above mentioned, to the southward of Cook's river, there is the greatest probability that it will be found that the said river rises in some of the lakes already known to the Canadian traders, and to the servants of the Hudson's bay company; which point it would, in that case, be material to ascertain; and you are, therefore, to endeavour to ascertain accordingly," &c.

The

The most liberal conduct and the greatest openness of communication were directed to be observed towards any vessels which might be met, belonging to other nations. It was calculated that the proposed survey would occupy two summers on the coast of America; and in the return, which was ordered to be by Cape Horn, it was recommended, if practicable, to examine the western coast of South America, beginning at the south point of the island of Chiloe, in latitude 44° south. That no cause of discontent nor of complaint might be given to the Spaniards, the Commander was strictly charged that, in the execution of his instructions, he should not on any account (distress excepted) touch at any port on the continent of America between the latitudes of 30° north and 44° south.

The vessels appointed for the expedition were named the Discovery and the Chatham.—The former was a ship of 340 tons burthen, commanded by Captain George Vancouver, carrying 10 guns, with a complement of 100 men:—The other was a brig, commanded by Lieutenant (now Captain) W. R. Broughton, carrying 4 guns and 45 men. A native of the Sandwich Islands, named Towereroo, who had been brought thence by one of our trading vessels in July 1789, was sent on board by the Admiralty, with orders to Captain Vancouver to convey him to his native land. This man, he says, 'while in England, lived in great obscurity, and did not seem in the least to have benefited by his residence in this country.'

On the 1st of April 1791 they sailed from Falmouth; on the 10th of July they arrived at the Cape of Good Hope; which place they left August 17th; and on the 26th of September they made the south-west coast of New Holland, in latitude 35° south, and longitude 116° east. Having sailed 35 leagues along the coast, which in this part was but very imperfectly known before, they discovered a harbour to which was given the name of King George the Third's Sound; where they remained nearly a fortnight. They met with none of the natives, but found deserted huts. The most remarkable objects that they saw were black swans, of which the following account is given: 'As we proceeded to the upper part of the harbour, our attention was directed to several large black swans in very stately attitudes swimming on the water, and, when flying, discovering the under part of their wings and breasts to be white: this is all the description we were enabled to give of them, since they were excessively shy, and we very indifferent marksmen.' We might appear too sceptical, perhaps, should we venture to suppose that these black swans might have been

cygnets. The wild swan, however, is described as having the back and the tips of the wings of an ash colour.

After their departure from King George the Third's Sound, bad weather prevented their keeping near the coast, which they only saw in detached parts. Towards the end of October they passed Van Dieman's land, and on the 3d of November anchored in Dusky Bay, in the south island of New Zealand. This place, which, in the former voyages, had been found inhabited, appeared now entirely deserted. In a three days' excursion, several spots, formerly the residence of the natives, were visited: but no traces of people were seen, nor any circumstance which in the least indicated that the country was at present inhabited.—The vessels left Dusky Bay on the 22d, and during the next night they were separated by a gale, and did not meet again till their arrival at Otaheite. After their separation, the Chatham discovered land in latitude 43°, 48′ S. and longitude 183° East: of which new discovery the following particulars are given from the narrative of Lieutenant Broughton, who commanded the Chatham. Having steered along the coast, keeping between 2 and 3 miles distant, with regular soundings from 22 to 25 fathoms, he says:

'The shore is a continued white sandy beach, on which the surf ran very high. Some high land, rising gradually from the beach and covered with wood, extends about 4 miles to the eastward of the Cape. After passing this land, we opened the several hills over the low land we had seen in the morning, and could discern that many of them were covered like our heaths in England, but destitute of trees. The woods in some spots had the appearance of being cleared, and in several places between the hills smoke was observed.'—

'After sailing about 10 leagues, we came abreast of a small sandy bay. Water was seen over the beach, and the country had the appearance of being very pleasant. With our glasses we perceived some people hauling up a canoe, and several others behind the rocks in the bay. Fearful that so good an opportunity might not occur for acquiring some knowledge of the inhabitants, I worked up into the bay, which we had passed before the natives were discovered. We came to an anchor about a mile from the shore in 20 fathoms water.'

Lieutenant Broughton, accompanied by Mr. Johnston the master, and one of the mates, went in the cutter towards the shore. The natives made much noise as they approached. Mr. Sheriff, the mate, leaving his arms in the boat, landed; but only 2 or 3 of the inhabitants came to him: the remainder, about 40, keeping at some distance. They took whatever was offered them, but would give nothing in return.

'Having repeatedly beckoned us to follow them round to where their habitations were supposed to be, as soon as Mr. Sheriff returned, we

we proceeded to comply with their wishes. They had been very curious in their examination of Mr. Sheriff's person, and seemed very desirous of keeping him, as they frequently pulled him towards the wood, where we imagined some of them resided. On meeting them on the other side, they seated themselves on the beach, and seemed very anxious to receive us on shore; but as all our intreaties were ineffectual in obtaining any thing in return for our presents, perceiving many of them to be armed with long spears, and the situation being unfavorable to us, in case they should be disposed to treat us with hostility, we did not think it prudent to venture amongst them; and finding our negotiation was not likely to be attended with success, we took our leave: but in our way off, as the natives remained quietly where he had left them, I thought it a good opportunity to land once more and take another view of their canoes.'

Of these vessels, Mr. Broughton has given a description, and likewise of their nets and fishing tackle, which were very ingeniously made.

'The woods afforded a delightful shade, and being clear of undergrowth, were in many places formed into arbours, by bending the branches when young, and enclosing them round with smaller trees. These appeared to have been slept in very lately. The trees of which the woods are composed grow in a most luxuriant manner, clear of small branches to a considerable height; and consist of several sorts, some of which, the leaf in particular, were like the laurel.'

During this examination, the natives began to collect about them. One man exchanged a spear for some trinkets, but no other barter was effected. Some looking-glasses being shewn to this man, he was so delighted with seeing the reflection of himself, that he ran off with them. As the people did not appear unfriendly, Lieutenant Broughton and a party walked along the shore towards their habitations, the boat keeping near them: but hostile preparations were soon observed to be making by the natives; and those who had not spears collected large sticks.

'Not liking these appearances, we had some thoughts of embarking; but, on our suddenly facing about, they retired up the beach to a fire which some of them had just made. Mr. Johnston followed them singly, but was not in time to discover the method by which it had been so quickly produced. His presence seemed rather to displease them, on which he returned, and we again proceeded along the beach.'

Arriving at a piece of water which had been seen from the ship, they tasted and found it brackish.

'We tried to explain to the natives who still attended us, that the water was not fit to drink, and then returned to the sea side; when, abreast of the boat, they became very clamorous, talked extremely

tremely loud to each other, and divided so as nearly to surround us. A young man strutted towards me in a very menacing attitude; he distorted his person, turned up his eyes, made hideous faces, and created a wonderful fierceness in his appearance by his gestures. On pointing my double-barrelled gun towards him he desisted. Their hostile intentions were now too evident to be mistaken, and therefore, to avoid the necessity of resorting to extremities, the boat was immediately ordered in to take us on board. During this interval, although we were strictly on our guard, they began their attack, and before the boat could get in, to avoid being knocked down I was reluctantly compelled to fire one barrel, which being loaded with small shot, I was in hopes might intimidate without materially wounding them, and that we should be suffered to embark without further molestation. Unfortunately I was disappointed in this hope. Mr. Johnston received a blow upon his musket with such force from an unwieldy club, that it fell to the ground; but before his opponent could pick it up, Mr. Johnston had time to recover his position, and he was obliged to fire on the blow being again attempted. A marine and seaman near him were, under similar circumstances, forced into the water, but not before they had also, justified alone by self preservation, fired their pieces without orders. The gentleman having charge of the boat seeing us much pressed by the natives, and obliged to retreat, fired at this instant also, on which they fled. I ordered the firing instantly to cease, and was highly gratified to see them depart apparently unhurt. The happiness I enjoyed in this reflection was of short duration, one man was discovered to have fallen; and I am concerned to add, was found lifeless, a ball having broken his arm and passed through his heart. We immediately repaired towards the boat, but the surf not permitting her to come near enough, we were still under the necessity of walking to the place from whence we had originally intended to embark. As we retired, we perceived one of the natives return from the woods, whither all had retreated, and placing himself by the deceased, was distinctly heard in a sort of dismal howl to utter his lamentations.'—

'We distributed (continues Mr. Broughton) amongst the canoes the remaining part of our toys and trinkets, to manifest our kind intentions towards them, and as some little atonement also for the injury which, contrary to our inclinations, they had sustained, in defending ourselves against their unprovoked unmerited hostility. In our way to the ship, we saw two natives running along the beach to the canoes, but on our arrival on board they were not discernible with our glasses.'

This unfortunate accident could not be prevented by people who were situated as were Mr. Broughton and his party. The natives were probably encouraged to the assault by the smallness of the force which they believed they should have to encounter; although, some time previously to the attack, Mr. Broughton gave them some birds which he had killed, and fired his gun to shew the cause of their death.

This land is of considerable magnitude: the part which they saw extended nearly 40 miles from east to west; and the appearance of the country, according to the description given, is very promising. In many respects, the natives resemble those of New Zealand; from which country they are distant about 100 leagues: but their skins were destitute of any marks, and they had the appearance of being cleanly in their persons. Their dresses were of seal or sea-bear skin, and some had fine woven mats fastened round the waist. 'They seemed a cheerful race, our conversation frequently exciting violent bursts of laughter amongst them. On our first landing their surprize and exclamations can hardly be imagined; they pointed to the sun, and then to us, as if to ask, whether we had come from thence.' Their arms were spears, clubs, and a small weapon resembling the New Zealand patoo.—The bay in which Lieut. Broughton landed he named Skirmish bay.

A small island was likewise found by the Discovery, in the passage to Otaheite, in latitude 27° 36′ S. and longitude 215° 49′ E. inhabited by a people, who, on account of their language and their resemblance to the Friendly Islanders, Captain Vancouver (rather quaintly) says, were evidently of the *Great South Sea Nation.* Nevertheless, their language (as appears in the narrative) was so little understood by our navigators, that, though they exerted their whole skill in endeavouring to obtain from the natives the name of their island, they were each unable to comprehend the other's meaning; and the name of Oparro was adopted, as the one which Captain Vancouver thought had the best chance of being right. A very material difference, which was likewise observed between these islanders and the inhabitants of the other islands with which we are acquainted in the south seas, was that not any of these people were tattowed.—Of the island, Captain Vancouver says, 'Its principal character is a cluster of high craggy mountains, forming, in several places, most romantic pinnacles, with perpendicular cliffs nearly from their summits to the sea; the vacancies between the mountains would more probably be termed chasms than vallies.' The circumstance most worthy of observation, however, was that

'The tops of six of the highest hills bore the appearance of fortified places, resembling redoubts; having a sort of block-house, in the shape of an English glass-house, in the center of each, with rows of pallisadoes a considerable way down the sides of the hills, nearly at equal distances. These, over-hanging, seemed intended for advanced works, and apparently capable of defending the citadel by a few against a numerous host of assailants. On all of them, we noticed people, as if on duty, constantly moving about. What we

considered as block-houses, from their great similarity in appearance to that sort of building, were sufficiently large to lodge a considerable number of persons, and were the only habitations we saw. Yet from the number of canoes that in so short a time assembled round us, it is natural to conclude that the inhabitants are very frequently afloat, and to infer from this circumstance that the shores, and not those fortified hills which appeared to be in the center of the island, would be preferred for their general residence.'

Above 30 canoes were seen. The island was estimated to be 6½ miles in length, and no other appeared in sight. Whether the fortified places, here described, were intended for defences of the islanders against each other, or against attacks from some more powerful neighbours, could only be conjectured: but the latter idea seems the most probable.—It was not ascertained whether this island afforded anchorage:—but appearances were thought favourable for that purpose near the N. W. part.

On the 30th of December, the Discovery anchored at Otaheite, and rejoined the Chatham, which had arrived there a few days before.

The natives of Otaheite received our voyagers in the most friendly and cordial manner. The original intention of the Commander was to have waited here no longer than was necessary to procure a small supply of fresh provisions; and then to have proceeded without farther loss of time to the Sandwich Islands, agreeably to the instructions received from the Admiralty: those islands lying nearly a month's sail from Otaheite, and the end of January being the time limited for the expectation of a vessel from England with additional instructions. The present situation, however, appeared to possess so much ease and convenience, that it was determined to remain, and here to finish whatever repairs were necessary, in preparation for the American coast.

Some months previously to Captain Vancouver's arrival here, the British ship of war the Pandora, which had been sent in quest of the mutineers of the Bounty, had left Otaheite; and nothing was known there concerning Mr. Christian and his remaining companions since that period: but it appears that, while they lived at Otaheite, they assisted the chiefs in their wars; and Captain Vancouver relates that he frequently saw the 'objects of their particular regard, by whom they have children:' whence it may be presumed that their children were seen also, though they are not in any other way mentioned.

Captain V. gives a full and not unentertaining account of the political views and enterprises of some of the chiefs: but, in his relation, he sometimes speaks of them with all the respect

respect due to royal personages, and at others treats them with too little ceremony.—It was remarked that many alterations had taken place in the manners, customs, and even persons of these people, since the time of Captain Cook's last visit to them. The wives of the chiefs, but no other women, were privileged to eat with the men. On the accession of the present chief to the Maro, or girdle of royalty,

'A very considerable alteration took place in their language, particularly in the proper names of all the chiefs, to which however it was not solely confined, but extended to no less than forty or fifty of the most common words which occur in conversation, and bearing not the least affinity whatever to the former expressions.

'This new language every inhabitant is under the necessity of adopting; as any negligence or contempt of it is punished with the greatest severity. Their former expressions were, however, retained in their recollection; and, for our better communication, were, I believe, permitted to be used in conversation with us, without incurring displeasure.'

Here it is proper to mention a custom, remarked, in former voyages, to have been in very common practice among the natives of the South Sea Islands, in their intercourse with Europeans, of adopting such pronunciation of their own language as was in use and best understood by the new-comers, for the convenience of more ready communication; this adoption, no doubt, being attended with much less trouble than the endeavour to correct. So far has this practice been known to prevail, that, when ships have been visited by people from the more distant parts of an island, it became necessary to have recourse to the natives with whom they had been longest acquainted, to act as interpreters between them. The most serious alteration, however, which Captain Vancouver supposes to have been effected by European communication, is in the beauty of the women. 'I cannot avoid acknowledging,' he says, 'how great was the disappointment I experienced, in consequence of the early impression I had received of their superior personal endowments.'—'The extreme deficiency of female beauty in these islands makes it singularly remarkable, that so large a proportion of the crew belonging to the Bounty should have become so infatuated,' &c.—No similar remark is applied to the men; who, if the race had degenerated or declined, must have been involved in the misfortune.—Shortly after their arrival, the Captain, intending to keep the first day of the new year as a holiday, says that 'all hands were served with a double allowance of grog to drink the healths of their wives and friends at home, lest, in the voluptuous gratifications of Otaheite, we might forget our friends in Old England.' This seems

seems to have been written under different impressions from those which dictated the observations first quoted, and allows us to indulge a hope that the alleged alteration existed only in the Captain's imagination;—perhaps from his having become more fastidious since his youth.

Captain Vancouver observes, to the honour of the Otaheiteans, that they were much more honest in their transactions with the ships than in former times; and, except in one instance, they gave scarcely any cause of complaint in that respect. 'Most of the animals, plants, and herbs which had caused Captain Cook so much anxiety and trouble to deposit here, have fallen a sacrifice to the ravages of war.'—The chiefs of Otaheite had procured, from the different vessels which had lately visited their island, several muskets and pistols, with the use of which they were well acquainted.—When the vessels were nearly ready for sea, the native of the Sandwich Islands, who had embarked with the voyagers from England, absented himself in consequence of some female attachment: but, from Captain Vancouver's influence with the chiefs, he was brought again to the ships.

The vessels quitted Otaheite on the 24th of January 1792; and on the 1st of March they arrived in sight of the Sandwich Islands, among which they remained till the 16th. They heard no tidings of the store-ship which they expected to have called here for them,—but received information that no vessels had arrived since the preceding autumn, when one British and three American traders had touched at the islands. Towereroo, the native, whom they carried from England, was left at Owhyhee, under the protection of a chief named Tianna, who had visited China, and of whom mention is made in the narrative of Captain Meares's voyage. On the 9th, the ships anchored at one of the islands, named Attowai, where they found part of the crew of an American trader; who had been left here by their commander, for the purpose of collecting sandal wood and pearls: with the former of which the islands abound, and a great price is given for it in India.

Many of these islanders, from their commerce with the European vessels which have been employed in the American fur trade, are provided with fire-arms; which they are more desirous of obtaining in return for their refreshments, than any other European commodity. Some of the chiefs produced written certificates of good behaviour, with recommendations from the commanders of trading vessels: but many of these directed that strangers, in their intercourse with the natives, should observe the greatest circumspection, and keep constantly on their guard; and for these cautions, our people learnt there

there had been very sufficient reason, attempts having been made by the natives to capture several vessels; one of which, an American schooner, unfortunately became their prey, and the crew were all, except one man, put to death.—At Attowai, the chiefs proposed to visit Captain Vancouver's ship: but, before they would venture on board, they required hostages.

Seeds of different kinds were left with the natives; and there is every probability of their thriving, as these people are very intelligent and careful in their husbandry. Among other instances of their ingenuity, an aqueduct was seen on a well-constructed wall of stone and clay, 24 feet high, for the purpose of watering their plantations.

April 17th, the ships made the American coast in latitude 39° 15′ N. and stood to the northward, keeping in sight of the shore, and preserving their station during the nights, that no part of the coast might be passed unobserved. In latitude 42° 38′ N., having anchored near the land, some canoes came off to the ships.—As these people seem to differ in character from any others who have been seen on the western coast of North America, we shall give Captain Vancouver's description of them.

'A pleasing and courteous deportment distinguished these people. Their countenances indicated nothing ferocious; their features partook rather of the general European character; their colour a light olive; and besides being punctuated in the fashion of the South-Sea islanders, their skin had many other marks, apparently from injuries in their excursions through the forests, possibly, with little or no cloathing that could protect them; though some of us were of opinion these marks were purely ornamental, as is the fashion with the inhabitants of Van Dieman's land. Their stature was under the middle size; none that we saw exceeding five feet six inches in height. They were tolerably well limbed, though slender in their persons; bore little or no resemblance to the people of Nootka; nor did they seem to have the least knowledge of that language. They seemed to prefer the comforts of cleanliness to the painting of their bodies; in their ears and noses they had small ornaments of bone; their hair, which was long and black, was clean and neatly combed, and generally tied in a club behind; though some amongst them had their hair in a club in front also. They were dressed in garments that nearly covered them, made principally of the skins of deer, bear, fox, and river otter; one or two cub skins of the sea otter were also observed amongst them. Their canoes, calculated to carry about eight people, were rudely wrought out of a single tree; their shape much resembled that of a butcher's tray, and seemed very unfit for a sea voyage or any distant expedition. They brought but a few trifling articles to barter, and they anxiously solicited in exchange iron and beads. In this traffic they were scrupulously honest, particularly

cularly in fixing their bargain with the first bidder; for, if a second offered a more valuable commodity for what they had to sell, they would not consent, but made signs, (which could not be mistaken,) that the first should pay the price offered by the second, on which the bargain would be closed. They did not entertain the least idea of accepting presents: for on my giving them some beads, medals, iron, &c. they instantly offered their garments in return, and seemed much astonished, and I belive not less pleased, that I chose to decline them. The first man, in particular, gave me some trouble to persuade him that he was to retain both the trinkets and his garment.'

When the ships had proceeded along the coast as far as 47° 37′ N. they fell in with an American vessel, named the Columbia, commanded by Mr. Robert Gray, the same person who had formerly commanded a sloop called the Washington; and of whose discoveries mention is made in the Admiralty instructions to Captain Vancouver, as may be seen in the part which we have quoted. The information which they obtained from Mr. Gray differs very materially from what was published concerning him in England; it is thus related:

'It is not possible to conceive any one to be more astonished than was Mr. Gray, on his being made acquainted, that his authority had been quoted, and the track pointed out that he had been said to have made in the sloop Washington. In contradiction to which, he assured the officers, that he had penetrated only 50 miles into the straits in question, in an E. S. E. direction; that he found the passage 5 leagues wide; and that he understood, from the natives, that the opening extended a considerable distance to the northward; that this was all the information he had acquired respecting this inland sea, and that he returned into the ocean by the same way he had entered at. The inlet he supposed to be the same that De Fuca had discovered, which opinion seemed to be universally received by all the modern visitors.'

Another piece of intelligence obtained from Mr. Gray was, that he had been off the mouth of a river in the latitude of 46° 10′ N. which he had for nine days endeavoured to enter, but was at length obliged to relinquish his purpose in consequence of a constant strong out-set. This opening Captain Vancouver had seen as he sailed by that part of the coast, but he had deemed it inaccessible; not on account of a current, but from breakers, which seemed to him to extend quite across the entrance.—The land which they had hitherto passed is described as presenting a prospect of great fertility, and abounding with woods: but, excepting the place at which a few canoes came off to them, as already mentioned, no inhabitants were seen on the whole extent of the coast; nor did they meet with any circumstance, that in the most distant manner in-

dicated a probability of the country being inhabited.' When they had now arrived, however, several villages were seen scattered along the shore; and on the evening of the 29th of April, they were off the entrance of the celebrated straits of Juan de Fuca.

An adequate, or even an intelligible, idea of the survey in which Captain V. and his companions were now engaged, can only be obtained by an examination and comparison of the charts with the narrative.—As they advanced within the opening of the straits, their progress was greatly retarded by the number of inlets into which the entrance branched in every direction;—and most of these were examined by the boats, which were frequently absent from the ships on this service for several days together.—In the midst of their labours, they were surprised by the sight of two Spanish vessels of war, employed like themselves in surveying this inlet, the examination of which had been begun by them in the preceding year. By the officers of these vessels, Captain Vancouver was informed that the commandant at Nootka waited his arrival there, 'in order to negociate the restoration of those territories to the crown of Great Britain;' and measures of mutual assistance were concerted between the Captains of the two nations, for the prosecution of the survey, in which each agreed to communicate to the other their discoveries. Not one of the many arms of the inlet, nor of the channels which they explored in this broken part of the coast, was found to extend more than 100 miles to the eastward of the entrance into the strait.—After having surveyed the southern coast,—on which side a termination was discovered to every opening,—by following the continued line of the shore, they were led to the northward and afterward towards the N. W. till they came into the open sea through a different channel from the strait of Juan de Fuca, by which they had commenced this inland navigation.

Thus it appeared that the land forming the north side of that strait is part of an island, or of an archipelago, extending nearly 100 leagues in length from S. E. to N. W.; and on the side of this land most distant from the continent, is situated Nootka Sound. The most peculiar circumstance of this navigation is the extreme depth of water, when contrasted with the narrowness of the channels. The vessels were sometimes drifted about by the currents, during the whole of a night, close to the rocks, without knowing how to help themselves, on account of the darkness, and the depth being much too great to afford them anchorage.

In the course of this survey, the voyagers had frequent communications with the natives, whom they met sometimes in

canoes

canoes and sometimes at their villages. In their transactions with Europeans, they are described as 'well versed in the principles of trade, which they carried on in a very fair and honorable manner.' In other respects, they were less honest. At one village, 200 sea otter skins were purchased of them by the crews of the vessels in the course of a day; and they had many more to sell in the same place, as also skins of bears, deer, and other animals.—One party of Indians whom they met had the skin of a young lioness; and these spoke a language different from that used in Nootka Sound. Venison was sometimes brought for sale; and a piece of copper, not more than a foot square, purchased one whole deer and part of another. Among other articles of traffic, two children, 6 or 7 years of age, were offered for sale.—The commodities most prized by the natives were fire-arms, copper, and great coats. Beads and trinkets they would only receive as presents, and not as articles of exchange. Many of them were possessed of fire-arms. In one part, it is related that, after a chief had received some presents, 'he, with most of his companions, returned to the shore; and, on landing, fired several muskets, to shew, in all probability, with what dexterity they could use these weapons, to which they seemed as familiarized as if they had been accustomed to fire-arms from their earliest infancy.'

The dresses of these people, besides skins, are a kind of woollen garments; the materials composing which are explained in the following extract:

'The dogs belonging to this tribe of Indians were numerous, and much resembled those of Pomerania, though in general somewhat larger. They were all shorn as close to the skin as sheep are in England; and so compact were their fleeces, that large portions could be lifted up by a corner without causing any separation. They were composed of a mixture of a coarse kind of wool, with very fine long hair, capable of being spun into yarn. This gave me reason to believe, that their woollen cloathing might in part be composed of this material mixed with a finer kind of wool from some other animal, as their garments were all too fine to be manufactured from the coarse coating of the dog alone.'

Of other animals alive, deer only were seen in any abundance by our people.

The number of inhabitants computed to be in the largest of the villages, or towns, that were discovered, did not exceed 600. Captain Vancouver conjectured the small-pox to be a disease common and very fatal among them: many were much marked; and most of these had lost the right eye.—Their method of disposing of their dead is very singular:

'Baskets were found suspended on high trees, each containing the skeleton of a young child; in some of which were also small square

square boxes filled with a kind of white paste, resembling such as I had seen the natives eat, supposed to be made of the saranne root; some of these boxes were quite full, others were nearly empty, eaten probably by the mice, squirrels, or birds. On the next low point south of our encampment, where the gunners were airing the powder, they met with several holes in which human bodies were interred, slightly covered over, and in different states of decay, some appearing to have been very recently deposited. About half a mile to the northward of our tents, where the land is nearly level with high water mark, a few paces within the skirting of the wood, a canoe was found suspended between two trees, in which were three human skeletons.—

'On each point of the harbour, which in honour of a particular friend I call PENN'S COVE, was a deserted village; in one of which were found several sepulchres formed exactly like a centry box. Some of them were open, and contained the skeletons of many young children tied up in baskets; the smaller bones of adults were likewise noticed, but no one of the limb bones could here be found, which gave rise to an opinion that these, by the living inhabitants of the neighbourhood, were appropriated to useful purposes, such as pointing their arrows, spears, or other weapons.'

However honourably these people have been represented in their conduct as traders, it appeared on several occasions that it was unsafe to depend on their good-will alone; and some instances occurred of their making every preparation for an attack, from which they desisted only on being doubtful of the event: yet immediately on relinquishing their purpose, they would come with the greatest confidence to trade, appearing perfectly regardless of what had before been in agitation. The boats, as already noticed, were frequently at a great distance from the ships; and on such occasions, when large parties of Indians have first seen them, they generally held long conferences among themselves before they approached the boats; probably for the purpose of determining the mode of conduct which they judged it most prudent to observe.

On the 9th of August, the vessels had again reached the open sea, and proceeded along the coast to the northward. On the 17th, in the latitude of 52° N. they met a British trading vessel, which had lately left Nootka: from whom they learnt that the Dædalus store-ship had arrived from England; and a letter, which was sent to Captain Vancouver, informed him of the unfortunate death of Lieutenant Hergest, her commander, who had been killed by the inhabitants of Woahoo, one of the Sandwich Islands, with Mr. William Gooch the astronomer. In consequence of this intelligence, Captain Vancouver determined to abandon, for the present season, the farther prosecution of the survey to the northward, and to make the best of his way towards Nootka Sound; at which port he anchored on the 28th.

The

The time at Nootka was fully occupied by negociation concerning the territories, of which restitution was to have been made by the Spaniards. Diplomatic history, however, is a kind of forbidden ground; and, as the subject of this does not afford much matter of entertainment, it may be sufficient to remark that, with great mutual civilities, very little progress was made towards an adjustment; till at length it was agreed by both parties to refer the business back to their respective courts.

Some circumstances occurred while this affair was transacting, which exhibit the character of the natives in a very entertaining manner. On the day after the arrival of the British ships at Nootka, the Spanish commander, Sen. Quadra, was invited on board to a public breakfast. The chief of the Indians in the neighbourhood of this place,

'*Maquinna*, who was present on this occasion, had early in the morning, from being unknown to us, been prevented coming on board the Discovery by the centinels and the officer on deck, as there was not in his appearance the smallest indication of his superior rank. Of this indignity he had complained in a most angry manner to Sen^r. Quadra, who very obligingly found means to sooth him; and after receiving some presents of blue cloth, copper, &c. at breakfast time, he appeared to be satisfied of our friendly intentions: but no sooner had he drank a few glasses of wine, than he renewed the subject, regretted the Spaniards were about to quit the place, and asserted that we should presently give it up to some other nation; by which means himself and his people would be constantly disturbed and harassed by new masters. Sen^r. Quadra took much pains to explain that it was our ignorance of his person which had occasioned the mistake.'

Captain Vancouver adds: 'I could not help observing with a mixture of surprise and pleasure, how much the Spaniards had succeeded in gaining the good opinion and confidence of these people; together with the very orderly behaviour, so conspicuously evident in their conduct towards the Spaniards on all occasions.' A few days afterward, in order to promote a good understanding with this chief, it was proposed to make him 'a visit of ceremony;' of which the following account is given:

'After visiting most of the houses, we arrived at *Maquinna*'s residence, which was one of the largest, though it was not intirely covered in; here we found seated in some kind of form, *Maquinna*'s daughter, who not long before had been publicly and with great ceremony proclaimed sole heiress of all his property, power, and dominion. Near her were seated three of his wives, and a numerous tribe of relations. The young princess was of low stature, very plump, with a round face, and small features; her skin was clean, and being nearly white, her person altogether, though without any pretensions to beauty, could not be considered as disagreeable. To her

her and to her father I made presents suitable to the occasion, which were received with the greatest approbation by themselves, and the throng which had assembled; as were also those I made to his wives, brothers, and other relations. These ceremonies being ended, a most excellent dinner was served, which Sen^r. Quadra had provided, at which we had the company of *Maquinna* and the princess, who was seated at the head of the table, and conducted herself with much propriety and decorum.

'After dinner, *Maquinna* entertained us with a representation of their warlike atchievements. A dozen men first appeared, armed with muskets, and equipped with all their appendages, who took their post in a very orderly manner within the entrance of the house, where they remained stationary, and were followed by eighteen very stout men, each bearing a spear or lance sixteen or eighteen feet in length, proportionably strong, and pointed with a long flat piece of iron, which seemed to be sharp on both edges, and was highly polished; the whole however appeared to form but an aukward and unwieldy weapon. These men made several movements in imitation of attack and defence, singing at the same time several war songs, in which they were joined by those with the muskets. Their different evolutions being concluded, I was presented with two small sea-otter skins; and the warriors, having laid by their arms, performed a mask dance, which was ridiculously laughable, particularly on the part of *Maquinna*, who took a considerable share in the representation.'

The negociation finishing in the manner before stated, Captain Vancouver informed Sen. Quadra that he should consider Nootka as a *Spanish port*, and requested his *permission* to carry on the necessary employments of watering, &c. on shore: which, says Captain Vancouver, he very politely gave.

On the 12th of October, the ships left Nootka Sound; the Dædalus store-ship in company, which had been found at Nootka. An extraordinary circumstance appears in this part of the narrative, which is thus related:

'On the day previous to our sailing, I received on board two young women for the purpose of returning them to their native country, the Sandwich Islands; which they had quitted in a vessel that arrived at Nootka on the 7th instant, called the Jenny, belonging to Bristol. But as that vessel was bound from hence straight to England, Mr. James Baker her commander very earnestly requested, that I would permit these two unfortunate girls to take a passage in the Discovery to Onehow, the island of their birth and residence.'

The manner in which these young women were brought away was very differently represented by them and the master of the vessel; he alleged that he put to sea without any knowlege of their being on board. In the sequel, it appears that they were restored to their country, after having received great marks of kindness and attention from Captain Vancouver.

The ships steered along the coast to the S. E. towards the river mentioned to them by Mr. Gray, commander of the Columbia, in latitude 46° 10′ N. which river is distinguished in the chart by the name of Columbia. On the 17th they were off its mouth, within which the Chatham entered: but the Discovery was prevented by the currents and broken water, and on the 21st was forced to sea by bad weather. Captain Vancouver continued his course to the southward, leaving the Chatham in Columbia river, and on the 14th arrived at Port St. Francisco. This settlement is described to be in a very unimproved state. 'Except its natural pastures, the flocks of sheep, and herds of cattle, there is not an object to indicate the most remote connection with any European or other civilized nation.' The character drawn of the natives is by no means a flattering picture:—'under the middle size, ill made, their faces ugly, presenting a dull, heavy, and stupid countenance,—the same horrid state of uncleanliness and laziness seemed to pervade the whole,' &c. Captain Vancouver visited the mission of St. Clara, (of which he gives a description,) 18 leagues distant from St. Francisco; in which journey, though the country presented a prospect of luxuriant fertility, 'there was neither house, hut, nor any place of shelter, excepting such as the spreading trees afforded.' Oaks were seen in great abundance. On his return to St. Francisco, Capt. V. found that the Chatham had arrived there.

Lieutenant Broughton, who was left in the entrance of Columbia river, when he saw the Discovery forced to sea, judiciously determined to take advantage of his situation, and proceeded to examine the river. The navigation was so interrupted by shoals, that, in the course of a few leagues, the vessel had twice taken the ground. This determined Mr. Broughton to continue his examination in boats; and accordingly, after having fixed the Chatham in a place of safety, he set out with his cutter and launch. They advanced in an eastern and southern direction, for seven days, following what appeared to be the main branch of the river: for several other rivers fell into this. During the first part of the time, they had some assistance from the flood tides: but latterly they had found the current constantly running towards the sea, though the rise and fall of the tide was very discernible by the shores. They had met with people in their way up, and at one time 'were surrounded by twenty three canoes, carrying from three to twelve persons each, all attired in their war garments, and in every other respect prepared for combat:'—but, after having discoursed with some friendly Indians who had before joined the English, they laid aside their war dress, and with great civility

civility exchanged some of their arms, and other articles, for such things as were presented to them, 'but would neither part with their copper swords, nor a kind of battle-axe made of iron.' Some of these strangers advised the voyagers to go no farther, making signs that, if they persisted, they would meet people who would cut off their heads. This was on the fourth day of their expedition. At the end of the 7th day, the rapidity of the stream increasing against them, and their provisions being nearly expended, Mr. Broughton found it impracticable to proceed farther. The breadth of the river here was a quarter of a mile, with soundings across from 6 to 2 fathoms. Some of the natives, from whom they endeavoured to procure intelligence, made signs which Mr. Broughton understood to mean that, higher up the river, they would meet with waterfalls, but that the source was very distant.—Such are the particulars of the interesting information gained by Mr. Broughton concerning Columbia River.

The observations made by Captain V. respecting Port St. Francisco open another field for conjecture.

'The little we had seen (says he) of Port St. Francisco, enabled us to decide that it was very extensive in two directions: one spacious branch took its course east and south-eastward to a great distance from the station we had quitted in the morning: the other, apparently of equal magnitude, led to the northward. In this were several islands.'—'Near the branch leading to the east and south-eastward before-mentioned is situated the mission of St^a. Clara. These gentlemen informed me, that this branch had been thoroughly examined, but that the branch leading to the north never had.'—'The port having been established by Spain, I did not consider it prudent to prosecute its examination without sufficient authority for so doing.' Vol. II. p. 4.

Here it may be remarked that it does not appear, in the narrative, that permission was demanded to make examination: but Captain V. states that the weather was not favourable for such an undertaking.

Leaving Port St. Francisco, the ships sailed to Monterey, another Spanish settlement. The Dædalus was now dispatched to New South Wales; and Captain Vancouver wrote to request of Governor Phillip, that she might be sent back to him at Nootka, with a supply of twelve months provisions and stores. This ship was also ordered to call in her way at Otaheite, for some English seamen who had been cast away in the ship Matilda, of London, on a ledge of rocks out of sight of any land; after which accident, the crew in their boats found their way to Otaheite. From that island, the second mate and two of the men had proceeded in an open whale-boat towards New South Wales, a distance of nearly 1200 leagues. Whe-

ther they succeeded in this hazardous and extraordinary undertaking, we do not find in the sequel. The commander of the Matilda, with four others, had taken their passage from Otaheite, on board the Jenny of Briſtol; which vessel Captain Vancouver met at Nootka Sound.

Lieutenant Broughton was left at Monterey; with accounts for the Board of Admiralty, of all their transactions up to that time, with surveys, &c. Sen. Quadra promising to accommodate him with a passage by the way of New Spain to England. On the 13th of January 1793, the ships sailed from Monterey, and on the 18th steered from the American coast towards the Sandwich Islands.—Thus concluded the first season of their search after a N. W. passage.

Here we shall for the present break off; detaining our readers no longer than while we offer a few remarks on the part of this valuable work which we have already examined.

In the perusal of Captain Vancouver's narrative, it will obviously strike the reader, that it is too much encumbered with nautical and geographical accounts. Some are necessary to make the details clear and intelligible: but more than is requisite for that purpose renders it sometimes *ponderous*, as Dr. Johnson, perhaps, would have said. It is to be regretted that, in the publication of sea voyages, the bulk of the nautical and scientific accounts is not given in a section by itself; for it is a sufficient tax on the unlearned purchaser, to pay the price of that part in which he must be little interested; without the additional grievance of being under the necessity of toiling through it, before he can arrive at the more entertaining matter.

The title-page announces a Voyage of Discovery, performed in the years 1790, 1791, &c. to 1795. The first of those years must have been inserted through inadvertence: for, though the preparations for the voyage were firſt made in 1790, the expedition was afterward suspended, as we have already mentioned; and Captain Vancouver's sailing orders from the Admiralty were dated March 8th, 1791, and the ships did not leave England till the 1st of April.

The application of the name of *North-West America*, to the coast which they were employed to survey, is surely taking too much licence:—the Admiralty, in their instructions, gave it the appellation of the North West *Coast of* America, which is less objectionable:—but the division of America into North and South having been long received and universally established; and by that division all that region which is to the northward of the Isthmus of Darien being, strictly speaking,

North America;—consequently, instead of *North-West America*, the most proper denomination would have been the *Western Coast of North America* *.

An idea is sometimes conveyed of a degree of *uncertainty* concerning the object of the researches of the voyagers, without the appearance of its having been intended: 'I was thoroughly convinced, as were also most persons of observation on board'—'The continental shore which I presumed this to be,' &c.—The geographical descriptions, likewise, are not always free from perplexities; which, however, may be attributed to Captain Vancouver's bad state of health not allowing him to attend sufficiently, at all times, to their correction.

The account of a voyage planned for the attainment of knowlege can scarcely fail of abounding in information; and to this position, the part of the narrative which we have laid before our readers proves that the present work is not an exception. The style of it, however, is unequal; in many passages it departs from the unaffected plainness which is so becoming in the narrative of a seaman. The ships sail from England with *a gentle breeze at day dawn.* We meet with *meanders, streamlets, enchanting lawns,* and *banks which overhang the murmuring brook.* In scenes the reverse of these, *animated nature seemed nearly exhausted.* Most commonly, however, the language is easy and natural.

We defer our observations on the general merits of the expedition, until we arrive at the conclusion of our abstract: but it would be injustice to quit the subject at this period of our analysis, without acknowleging that, though many parts of the survey were attended with great difficulties and much danger, it was prosecuted with a praise-worthy diligence and unremitted attention.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Malvern Hills:* a Poem. By Joseph Cottle. 4to. 2s. 6d. Longman. 1798.

IN one of Mr. Pope's notes on Homer, he seems to have thought it strange that grammarians, whose business it is to *torture* words, should presume to judge of poetry. Perhaps it is still more out of character for the author of a poem, which is descriptive of grand or beautiful scenery, to write a laboured preface on the sufferings of the poor, mixed with severe reflec-

* Captain Cook's last voyage is expressed, in the title, to be for the purpose of determining the position and extent of *The West Side of North America.*

tions on the conduct of the higher ranks in society, and accusing them indiscriminately of luxury, selfishness, and insensibility. That there is an abundant store of misery in human life, we all know, and in a certain degree experience. Entirely to eradicate evil, we also know, is beyond the reach of human wisdom, and the exertion of human power: but to mitigate and lessen it are possible, and are very sacred duties. It must likewise be allowed that the present age has been very fertile in expedients for bettering the condition of the poor; and perhaps there never was a period at which active benevolence was more universal than at this time. It is the misfortune of theorists, however, to form to themselves pictures of perfection and happiness which never did and never can exist, in our present state; and then to ascribe every deviation from these golden dreams, to some defect in the laws, or some error in the government. To this source we may not uncharitably (it is hoped) attribute that appearance of discontent which prevails in the poem before us; for although it bears the name of *Malvern Hills*, yet a very small part of it is (properly speaking) descriptive of that beautiful and salubrious spot: the greater portion being devoted to express the thoughts and sentiments of the writer.

One of the finest passages in Thomson's Seasons is in his Autumn, where he sets forth the advantages of industry and commerce: but on this subject Mr. Cottle differs very much in opinion from that admirable poet; as will appear from the following extract:

'What of our mortal ills to thee belong,
Infuriate Commerce! thou unceasing weav'st
The veil that hides the Deity from man.
Gold turns the heart to stone! makes wise men fools!
For this the parent sells his darling child,
Surveys the price of barter'd innocence,
And with Iscariot smile, cries, all is well.
For this the Merchant toils his life away,
Endures Hindostan's heat—Siberia's snows,
That when the worms have burrow'd in his skull,
Some prattling tongue may tell the wonderous sum
Once he could call his own. For love of gold
(Gold only sought for luxuries, not wants)
The gallant sailor braves the tempest's rage,
The wild tornado's desolating power;
Contends with dangers in heart-harrowing shapes,
Far from the wife held dear—the home of peace.
'Thy triumphs, MAMMON, shall not always thus
Sound thro' the earth, nor always shalt thou see
Youth, Beauty, Innocence, and heaven-born Love,
And all the nobler passions of the soul

Bend

Bend at thy feet, and own no God but thee.
Nor always shalt thou view the peaceful child
Of innocence, in some unguarded hour,
Lured by the demon Commerce from his home.
' Cities and towns, ye haunts of wretchedness * !
Where Commerce with a grin of extacy
Sits counting o'er her votaries' tears and sighs ;
Urged by your splendid poisons †, what a host

' * A reference is here made to the evils arising from manufactures: I do not mean to cast a general reflection on all of them, but that some are attended with destructive consequences, cannot be questioned. It may be well to specify one or two. I shall therefore notice the pin manufacture and that for white-lead. In the former, the pointing of pins is attended with the almost certain sacrifice of those who are employed in it. Strong constitutions are not so immediately affected, but to the strongest it generally proves fatal, if persisted in for a few years ; which arises from the number of metallic particles received into the lungs by breathing. These stop the finer vessels, and induce by that means apoplexy and consumption. If *property* had been concerned, and not *lives*, ingenuity would long ago have discovered some mode for supplying the lungs with air uncontaminated with this destructive mixture.

' With respect to the manufacture of white-lead, the consequences are still more fatal. In particular departments of it, an employment of three months produces palsy in some of the limbs, commonly a loss of the hand chiefly employed, and which rapidly extends, unless the person change his occupation. The conductors of this manufacture are so aware of the consequences, that they never solicit any man to engage in it. They simply open their doors, and receive such only as are starving, and can find no other employment.——What are these manufactures but an union of suicide and murder? Society has enacted laws for the punishment of murderers ; but it is for those only who kill on a small scale, or in a particular way.—The far larger proportion are considered as honorable men—" all honorable men." White-lead is principally used in the composition of paint. I have had a room painted with a mixture of chalk and oil, which looks full as well as white-lead ; its only disadvantage arises from changing colour sooner than the common paint ; but that other experiments might succeed better cannot be doubted ; and the Society of Arts, if they have not already done it, could direct the attention of the ingenious and scientific to few questions in which the interests of society are more involved.'

† ' Large manufacturing towns receive annually a supply of young men from the surrounding country, to make up for the deficiencies of those who have come to a premature death from the unwholesomeness of their occupations. Unthinking youths, from the superior wages offered them, are induced to try these dangerous experiments. They commence their new employments with complexions that indicate health, but in a year or two, their countenances

Of inexperienced sons have left their homes,
The cot's calm comforts, and the quiet shades,
To taste your bitter dregs, and be immured,
From morn's first dawn till evening far is spent,
In dust, and stench, and pestilence! remote
From friends, assail'd by vice in every shape
That chains to dust the soul, and doom'd at length
To linger out their blasted lives in scorn—
Their peace destroy'd—their innocence gone by.'

We conceive this to be a fair specimen of the author's versification, which is certainly smooth and harmonious; and whatever may be determined in regard to his sentiments, they are at least founded in *benevolence*,—the brightest ornament of the human character.

From the *opening* of the poem, an opinion may be formed of Mr. Cottle's talents for description:

' Alone, unnoticed, at this early hour,
While all around is silence, I will mount
The MALVERN HILLS. This is a holy-day *;
And holy I will make it, leave the world,
Its toils, and cares, and commune with myself.
' As up I climb, the freshness of the morn
Smells grateful, though no object meet my view.
Through the dark mists, which now with coming day
Struggle for mastery, the giant Hill
Casts not a shade. Now back I turn to mark
The winding path, but all is grey and void;
On every side thick clouds; the spacious world
Lives but in memory! whilst forth I roam
A wandering, unlov'd, solitary thing.
Tho' here on this known spot, my fancy starts
At her own shapings—fearful—impotent;
Now rousing up impossibilities;
Pursuing then, through each strange circumstance,
The vagrant thought with aptest energy.

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commonly become pallid, their minds dispirited, and their bodies weak. Though these appearances are applicable to most manufacturing towns, yet I have an eye more particularly on Manchester. 'In this place the above effects are notorious, nor will it be wondered at, when it is understood that many branches of the manufactures conducted at this place, require the absence of fresh air, in consequence of which the air becomes so impure as seriously to injure the health, and if consumption should not be the immediate consequence, the general habit is so much impaired, as to be rendered liable to a long catalogue of distressing maladies. The evil is further increased by the frequent custom of employing two sets of hands to work day and night alternately.'

* ' The time, Whit-Monday, and early in the morning.'

Ye

Ye idle phantasies! away! away!
I am no unblest solitary man,
Confined to one rude spot, whilst round, a scene
Illimitable spreads—bleak—desolate—
With not one kindred soul to share my being.
I have ten thousand recollections dear,
This Mount, I know it well, and soon shall tread
Its proudest summit, soon with joy behold
Objects that glad the heart—unspeakable!'

We may add also the poet's *conclusion*, as a farther display of the peculiar mood and temper of mind in which Mr. Cottle paid his visit to the celebrated rural scenery of Malvern.

'Farewell, delicious spot! I now must leave you;
Now must return to breathe pollution's air;
To mix with men, envelop'd in the cares
Of life; to be envelop'd too; to hear
Their converse low, how best to meet with wealth,
And to preserve that end of life till death.
It must be so, yet will I love to think
On you, dear Mount! and ponder on the joys
This morn bestow'd, and say, pressing my heart,
Than to review with memory's musing eye
Your lofty summit, mark its subject vales,
Its many scatter'd spires, and hamlets small,
And hear the magic orisons of birds,
Breaking the silence with their melody;
Not sweeter to the nightly traveller's ear
Sounds the soft lute, while wandering by the side
Of some slow stream, when, not a whispering breeze
Awakes the grove, and not a murmur, rude,
Impedes the warbled notes—expiring slow;
Whilst the clear moon resplendent shines aloft,
And casts her pale beam o'er the sleeping tide.'

To the poem on Malvern Hills, the author has added an 'Elegy on the Death of a beloved Sister,'—which breathes the genuine spirit of fraternal affection and tenderness.

Those readers, who may incline to amuse themselves with a comparative estimate of the respective characteristics of Dr. Booker's and Mr. Cottle's rival poems * on Malvern, will find our account of the former in the Review for the preceding month of December.

* Their publication so nearly together gives some appearance of rivalship, though the circumstance may be merely accidental.

ART.

ART. III. *Zechariah; a new Translation:* with Notes, critical philological, and explanatory; and an Appendix, in Reply to Dr. Eveleigh's Sermon on Zechariah, ii. 8—11. To which is added, (a new Edition, with Alterations,) a Dissertation on Daniel, ix. 20. to the End. By Benjamin Blayney, D. D. Regius Professor of Hebrew, and Canon of Christ Church, Oxford. 4to. pp. 161. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1797.

As we have formerly had occasion to notice honourably the skill of Dr. Blayney in Hebrew criticism, we are glad to meet him again in that arduous department of literature.

The Doctor justly observes, that the book of Zechariah has been generally acknowleged to contain many things hard to be understood; and though the number of these has of late years been very considerably lessened, yet new light may break in on a man who comes fresh to the task, which probably might not have done so but for preceding observations. In order, however, to comprehend the sentiments and writings of an author, it is generally of use to become acquainted with the situation and circumstances in which he wrote. Zechariah was one of the last in that succession of prophets, who delivered their oracular sentences to the Jews as declaratory of the will of God. That he was in the number of the captives who returned from Babylon to Jerusalem in consequence of the decree of Cyrus, says Dr. B. is unquestionable: but that he was very young when he came thither appears from this, that, sixteen or seventeen years afterward, when he had begun to exercise his prophetical function, he is styled *a youth*; a title which would scarcely have been given to him had his age much exceeded twenty. He was not only of a priestly family, but he was of considerable distinction and rank among his brethren. It was in the eighth month of the second year of the reign of Darius the son of Hystaspes, king of Persia, (that is, about the year 520 before the Christian æra,) that he first opened his divine commission with a serious and solemn call to repentance. In the same year, he is found, together with the prophet Haggai, employed in assisting the endeavours of Zerubbabel and Jeshua to excite and animate the people at Jerusalem to a vigorous prosecution of the work of rebuilding their temple. For this purpose, he communicated the visions, which are contained in the first six chapters, and with which he was favoured on the 24th day of the eleventh month in the year aforesaid; all evidently calculated to inspire the strongest hopes and assurance of future prosperity through the returning favour of the Almighty; and thus to convince the people, that they were not labouring on a barren and ungrateful soil. The same design

is pursued in a subsequent revelation made to him about two years afterward; when, in answer to a question proposed, whether the anniversary fast of the fifth month, which had for many years been observed on occasion of the destruction of the city and the temple of Jerusalem by the Chaldeans in that month, should continue to be kept, now that the damages then sustained were in a fair way of being wholly repaired, the people were told that they not only might safely discontinue the observance of that and other similar fasts, which they had instituted for themselves in the days of mourning and sorrow, but that, by a happy turn in their affairs, those fasts should be changed into times of festivity and rejoicing.

With respect to the succeeding part of these prophecies, Dr. Blayney tells us that they are left more in the way of conjecture: that it is however highly probable, from the apparent difference both of style and subject, that they came forth at a different and more advanced period of the prophet's life; and it is not at all surprising that the writer, as he advanced in years and dignity, should have learned to express himself in a tone of more elevation and energy. At such distant periods also, as the author supposes, the subject would in course be materially changed. The Prophet would no longer have occasion to stimulate his countrymen to the building of the temple, which was now completely finished; but he was actually engaged in predicting some remarkable occurrences, which would distinguish his own nation and the neighbouring countries in remote periods,—some of them perhaps not yet arrived; and in urging an immediate reformation of national manners. In so doing, what was more natural to expect, than that he should encounter hatred and opposition from those whose corruptions he was called to censure and repress? Accordingly, there is sufficient ground for concluding that all this happened to him, from what he says (in the eleventh chapter) of the freedom and zeal with which he exposed and counteracted the iniquitous conduct of those who make merchandice of the flock; meaning those unprincipled guides, who assumed the direction of the people only to sacrifice them to the gratification of their own ambition and avarice. Several of these, by exhibiting in himself the contrast of a good shepherd, he found means at first to deprive at least of that influence and authority which they once possessed, and had wickedly abused. The sequel may easily be guessed. His enraged adversaries, after having thwarted and defeated all his endeavours for the public good, at length, (no doubt by intrigue and misrepresentation,) so far succeeded as to turn the tide of popular prejudice and resentment against him; and he was barbarously murdered, as his namesake

Zechariah

Zechariah the son of Jehoiada had been for the same cause, and in the same place, between three and four hundred years before.

The translation, on the whole, is accurate; and the notes are sensible and judicious, throwing much new light on this obscure prophet. For our opinion of the Dissertation on Daniel, ix. 20. which forms a third part of this volume, we refer the reader to our Review, vol. lii. p. 487.

ART. IV. *The Lectures of J. B. de Mainauduc, M. D.* Member of the Corporation of Surgeons in London. Part the First. 4to. pp. 230. Price *Five Guineas* in Boards. Printed for Miss Prescott, the Executrix, in Bloomsbury Square.

ON reading this work, we could not avoid lamenting the fatal obstinacy of men; who, when they have it in their power, by the simple use of their common senses, to remove all diseases whatsoever, will still continue to suffer and be miserable, because—they will not stretch out their hands for their own assistance. One source, indeed, of their present state of error has been, that they were and are ignorant of what is, and what is not, disease; and hence they have hitherto unwittingly removed those conditions of the body, which they should have encouraged. It is no wonder, then, that our learned author should exclaim,

'How essential for mankind to know, that all the alarming appearances of fever, ague, cholic, and convulsion, so voluminously written on, and so lavishly prescribed for, are *symptoms* only and not *diseases*; that they are efforts of nature, critically set up to cure herself, and consequently, that they are to be cherished and encouraged; by which means they become efficacious and successful: and that every attempt by bleeding, by vomiting, by purging, or by regimen, to remove them, is injurious and destructive, and by no means to be submitted to!'

However, thanks to Dr. de Mainauduc, 'we no longer want symptoms to guide our judgment, nor drugs to produce evacuations; we possess within ourselves the power of inducing those effects.'

Ay! but how? exclaim our readers. Patience, gentlemen:—ye shall know.

It must appear strange, when so long a time has elapsed since *man* became an inhabitant of this globe, that he should not yet have discovered the true and proper uses of two very material parts of his frame, namely, his eyes and his hands.—It has been a generally received opinion that we cannot see in what has been called *the dark*. This is altogether erroneous: there

there is no such thing as darkness in nature; and, by practice, we may see in all situations.

'A girl' (for instance) 'at Parma saw objects as distinctly at midnight, though her window-shutters were perfectly closed, as she could by day-light.

'Briggs gives an account of a man who read letters in the night.

'Mr. Boyle tells us that a gentleman confined in a dungeon, began in a few weeks to discover light; it daily increased, so that he could distinguish his bed, and other large objects; at length he plainly saw rats running about, and picking up his crumbs.

'The Emperor Tiberius,

'Scaliger, and his son Joseph,

'Marcus Antonius Sabellicus,

'Hieronymus Cardianus,

'Cælius,

'Asclepiodorus, and a very long list of names, are all upon record, for seeing and reading well in the darkest nights.

'Fabricius ab aqua pendente, tells us of a man at Pisa, who saw well in the darkest nights, but obscurely by day.

'Julianus, a Monk, constantly read in the darkest nights, and never lighted a candle for seventy years.

'In all these instances we perceive there was no want of light, and yet other people called it perfect darkness; consequently the defect must have been in the visual organ of those who could not discover light.

'But we have many instances of human sight receiving this improvement by accident, by inflammation, by drunkenness, by fevers, by fits of passion, during which time all appeared light, which but the moment before was deemed perfect darkness.

'Mr. Boyle, Briggs, and several other authors, confirm these accounts, and give instances which it would take up too much time to repeat. One only I beg leave to select from the Journal des Sçavans.

'A gentleman received a stroke in his eye by the snapping of a lute-string; inflammation was set up, and to his astonishment, he could from that instant discover the most minute objects, and read the smallest type in the greatest darkness, but was perfectly dark of that eye by day or by candle-light; so that he habitually used the inflamed eye in what others called darkness, and the other eye by day.

'In short, every circumstance tends to prove that light is continually present in every situation, but not at all times in the same degree, and that there is no such state as absolute darkness, or privation of light in all nature.'

Now this being the case, it is evident that the hitherto hidden and interior parts of our frame become luminous and visible to the well-practised and intelligent eye; and hence, in order to *discover* all diseases, we have only to command our eyes to look after them. 'This process,' it seems, 'is comprised in three divisions.

'A thought,

'A thought, or influence, must first be conveyed to the spirit, or mind, by some visible, or invisible agent. This the spirit is perfectly free to adopt or reject.

'Having arrived at this second stage, volition arises; that is, the spirit commands some part of its body (the eye, for instance) to execute its will, and for that purpose transmits its decree by the nerves or conductors of its volition to that part of the form, whose department it is to act, according to the nature of the object.'

The nature and extent of any disease being thus easily ascertained by the eye, it appears to have been almost needless for the author to put us in possession of other modes of investigating the same facts. As he has thought this necessary, however, it becomes our duty to instruct our readers in this process; first referring them to the Doctor's serious admonition:

'Permit me to intreat you timely to reflect on the very, very momentous charge you are now undertaking: remember the parable of the Talents, and the fate of the indolent servant; remember, that from him to whom much is confided, much will be required. That by the mysteries into which you are now initiating, and which are totally unknown to the world, (yourselves, and your instructed brethren excepted,) the health, the lives, and the morals of perhaps thousands of your fellow-creatures will be intrusted to your care; consequently, and most assuredly, you will become accountable to the Author of those mysteries for the use you make of them.'

To clearly understand our author's mode of examination and treatment of diseases, the following recapitulation of his doctrines should be duly noted.—The globe of which he here speaks is the earth, and the warty appearances on its surface are men and women.

'On looking back at the picture, a globe appears changing its solid state into that of action, re-action, heat, and circulation.

'This is rapidly succeeded by a prodigious number of atoms, attracting each other into circular currents, and branching out quite round and through the entire globe in every direction.

'Scarcely has the eye indulged in this curious process, before it discovers numberless atoms getting together into small heaps, and moulding themselves into forms of various shapes and sizes, all which are penetrated by, or strung as it were on, the circular currents.

'Attentively considering those warty appearances, we soon perceive them surrounded by what was, before, an invisible part of themselves, collected from their form and shaped like their figure. From this vapour of atoms we again perceive particles detaching and continually flying upwards into the general space.

'This surrounding shadow, as well as the particles which are detached from it, appear at first sight to be perfectly simple, and composed of atoms of one kind only; but on a closer investigation, it changes its aspect, and shews atoms of various kinds and of different colours.

'The

'The eye of critical observance becomes too strongly attached to this new phenomenon to pass it hastily over, and new lights shine forth to gratify the pursuit.

'Clouds of fluid atoms, varying in their colour, shape, and size, according to the state of their respective sources, rush forth from each internal part, and conspire to render the surrounding shade as heterogenial in its appearance as it is in its quality.

'These are succeeded by a second class of atoms, as little homogenial as the former: they fly off from each uncirculating part of the form, and bursting through its pores, penetrate the surrounding shade, and lose themselves in the general medium.

'Scarcely has the complex picture attained this state of perfection, before some of its objects begin to moulder into dust. Cohesion's attractive bonds dissolve. The curious form breaks down. The separating atoms disperse to join the general mass, and leave the unencumbered strings ready to receive and penetrate the next succession of accumulated heaps of particles.

'Thus action heats the general atoms into circulating forms;
'Composition and emanations surround them with an atmosphere;
'Universal bonds attach them to each other;
'Obstruction destroys their regularity;
'And decomposition scatters the atoms to their parental earth.'

Now respecting the mode of examination:

'There are two general methods of receiving impressions, or of disposing the examiner to receive them.

'The first is, by opposing one, or both hands.

'The second, by opposing the entire body to that of the examined.

'The first is that mode which should be accurately attended to by newly initiated students, as it affords a catalogue of sensations, which become a regular standard to judge of all diseases by, and to reduce examination to accuracy and perfection.

'This mode of examination consists in opposing one or both hands towards the patient. The examiner should sit or stand in an easy position, cautiously avoiding all pressure on his body or arms, lest that should afford him an excuse for suspecting the impressions to proceed from that cause, rather than from the disease.

'The examiner should fix on some particular part of the patient's external or internal form: then, turning the backs of his hands, with the fingers a little bent, he must vigorously and steadily command the emanations and atmosphere, which derive from that part, to strike his hands, and must closely attend to whatever impressions are produced on them.

'It is scarcely necessary to say, that the more composed and attentive the examiner is, the more accurate will be the result of his examination.

'During this process, he must not permit his attention to wander from the object; if he should, his labour is entirely lost, and he must begin anew, or relinquish his purpose.

'To

'To render the process the more steady, the eyes of the examiner should be fixed on the part he attends to, with the unvaried intent of directing the atoms which derive from it towards his hands, which must be as ready to catch, as he is to account for the earliest impressions. It may be naturally supposed that the eyes of the examiner should be open, but it is better they were shut, as all foreign objects are by that means excluded, and the porosity of the eye-lids removes the idea of impediment.

'The examiner should never be hasty in delivering his opinion, but should repeatedly examine the same part, and deliver his decision when he has found the sensations uniformly similar after several trials.

'The impressions made on different examiners by the same disease, will be uniformly the same when they become adepts.

'It is essentially necessary to render the process of receiving the atoms detached from every object familiar to us. This will be effected by habitually seeking for them. For this purpose students should frequently receive the emanations from salt, sugar, water, fire, and in short, from every occurring substance; by which means they soon become expert.

'As the impression produced on the examiner by such emanations as he attracts from disease, will frequently give him some slight pain, more especially if he has himself obstructions: those who are ready to grasp at any excuse to wound the science, may very probably hold that up to excuse themselves, or to deter others from their duty: but those who venture to look beyond the surface, perceive the great advantage which must derive to the examiner, if he should be obstructed, since those very emanations which cause him pain will detach some of his disease, and by frequent repetition will effectually remove the whole. Those who receive such pungent impressions, and are not themselves diseased, cannot have any apprehensions, because such emanations never create disease in the operator; and all properly-instructed persons have it in their power to remove them from themselves as soon as they please.

'In the second mode of examination, the operator must not seek to know where the patient is; but recollecting that all human beings are connected to each other by innumerable atmospherical nerves, and that the entire medium in which they are placed is composed of loose atoms, he must fix his attention on the object, as if he stood before him.

'Thus situated, the examiner must vigorously exert his power to attract the entire atmosphere and emanations from the patient to himself.

'By this means, the atoms which derive from each particular part of the examined, run to the parts of the same denomination in the examiner; and those particles which are diseased produce impressions on the same parts in the examiner as they do when attracted to his hand. Thus he feels in every part of his own person, whatever the patient feels in his; only in a less degree in general, but always sufficiently to enable him to describe the feelings of the patient, and clearly

clearly to ascertain the very spot in which it exists, and the consequences deriving from it.

'If the examiner's attention is carried only on one particular viscus in the patient, that same viscus only will receive information in himself. But if it be rendered general, every part of his body will give an account of its own proceedings.

'But it is to be observed, that undiseased parts will not convey any remarkable impression to the examiner; as nothing results from health, but gentle, equable, soft heat.

'In every examination the parts which produce impressions on the examiner are to be duly considered; the manner of their formation recollected; and the kind of treatment they demand is to be clearly made out before any curative process can be commenced.

Having thus ascertained the existence of disease, it remains only to remove it by the proper *treatment*.

'The present process is the opposite to the last; in that the examiner attracted the atoms from the patient to himself; but in this he must force his atoms against the patient.

'By a steady exertion of compound volition, we have it in our power to propel the particles which emanate from our own body into and against whatever part of any other form we fix our attention on, and can force them in any direction, and to any distance.

'Thus, by a continual and regular succession of particles, directed vigorously in a rapid stream against those atoms which are stopped in their passage, and accumulated in a heap, we break down the impediment, push off those atoms which we detach, direct them into the circulating currents for evacuation, and rescue the system from its impeded functions.

'This process may, in some sort, be said to resemble that of continuing to throw handsful of shot at a heap of sand, accumulated in a rivulet, which, as the grains of sand become separated from each other, washes them along before it; as all obstructions are not equally hard or compact, they are not all destroyed with the same facility, nor equally soon. A single look will often prove sufficient for a recent accumulation of particles, for an accidental contraction, or for a sudden distention; whereas those of long standing, and of a more serious nature, demand frequent, long, and judiciously-varied treatment.'

It here becomes necessary to recall to the attention of the reader a circumstance to which we before alluded. We mean, that men have hitherto not only been ignorant of the true uses of their hands, particularly of their fingers, but that they really do not know their figure and extent. Our fingers by no means finish at the point at which they are supposed to end: that opinion is erroneous; they are prolonged into 'invisible fingers,' which penetrate the pores of other people, and are to be considered as the natural and only ingredients which are, or can be, adapted to the removal of nervous or of any other

affections of the body.' Thus—'by placing these invisible fingers on the contracted and curled up nerves, and by striping down, or laying smooth their irritated inequalities, the spasms or convulsions disappear.' Can any process be more simple and easy than this?—To apply its use, now, in the case of stone in the bladder;—a disease which it certainly is desirable to know how to remedy. We learn that

'The impressions produced by stone on the hands and fingers of the examiner will be

Heaviness, indolence, and cold:

And these impressions are uniformly the same, over the entire extent of the stone, from centre to circumference in every direction.

'But when we have passed the bounds of the stone, the impressions immediately alter, because we no longer receive emanations from the stone, but from the parts which surround or contain it.

'Suppose the stone to be situated in the urinary bladder: when we get beyond the bounds of the stone, we receive emanations from the bladder, and the impressions must then be according to the healthy or diseased state of that viscus.

'If the stone has not caused inflammation, or any morbid affection in the bladder, we must receive the impressions of health; which are,

An Equable,
Soft,
Gentle,
Natural,
} Heat.

'But if the irritating surface of the stone has induced

Inflammation,
Pus, or matter,
Scirrhus, or
Mortification;

the impressions must be such as those different stages communicate.'

The next practice is to remove the stone:

'To remove the heap of sand, thus accumulated into stone, it must be again reduced to sand, or to very fine gravel. The connecting bond, which, during health, had been one of the natural humours of the body, must be again attenuated by mixing its thick and gummy atoms with other more fluid ones of the same nature, and the stone must then be crushed into powder.

'This operation calls forth a recollection and an exertion of the practical rules, which I have endeavoured to explain; and comprehends, by its complexity, several of the different modes of action or treatment.

'In the first place, the rules for examination must have been judiciously exerted to ascertain the situation and size of the stone, and to judge of the injuries which the surrounding parts may have sustained from it.

'In the second place, our invisible power must be applied to the juices which circulate in the vicinity of the stone: they must be conducted

ducted to the stone and immediately applied to its surface, so that the stone must be soaked in that fluid for the purpose of dissolving the gum which sticks the particles of sand to each other.

'If the hands are employed in this process, the mind must conceive, that the streams of atoms which continually rush forth from the fingers, are continued on, and lengthened out into, long invisible fingers, which become continuations of our visible ones; and which, being composed of minute particles, are perfectly adapted to pass through the pores of another form, and to be applied as we should our visible fingers to the very part on which it is intended to act.

'The third process is action, by striking those very emanating particles that constitute that invisible part of our form, which it is intended to employ, whether it be the hand, the eye, or any other part. By striking them, I say, forcibly, and in constant and rapid succession against the stone, the particles of sand, which, by steeping, are rendered less tenacious to each other, detach, and falling again into dust, are taken up and washed out of the body by the natural evacuation.'

What shall we say to this? Was ever operation so ingenious and so plain?—So, likewise, in the cure of the rheumatic head-ache:

'To cure this kind of head-ache, the scalp, or covering of the skull, must be vigorously treated outwards, by placing the invisible hand on the bare skull, under the scalp, and with the back of the hand upwards, forcing all the obstructed particles outwards through the pores, and bursting open all those which may be shut up.'

Again, in that species of head-ache which arises from a diseased stomach:—to remedy this,

'The internal cavity and coat of the stomach must be cleared of slime; the invisible fingers must scrape, as it were, all the internal surface; and we must carefully attend to such evacuations as nature may dictate.

'If a strong inclination to vomit should come on, direct the stuff through the cardia, or left orifice, through which aliment passes into the stomach: but if a contrary evacuation should be indicated, either by the operator's impressions, or by the patient's own feelings, it must be assisted and not counteracted.

'The sensations produced by this ropy humour in the stomach are

A Thick, Gummy,

feel on the fingers; and when they are gently moved, they meet with a slight degree of resistance; if attempted to be bent, the skin feels

Stiff, and a little Rigid.

'To judge of the depth of the slimy humour in the stomach, the fingers must be perpendicularly dipped in it to the bottom of the stomach; the consequence will be, the impression of

A Circular Line,

as if a string surrounded each finger, marking the depth to which they had sunk in the stuff.

'From that line downwards to the fingers'-ends, they feel
Stiff and Rigid:
but above these bounds, the fingers and hand have their natural feel.'

So in the cure of vomiting—'the invisible hands must be laid on the internal surface of the stomach, and the whole must be made smooth, stretching gently out the little contractions and curlings of the delicate nerves.'

In this easy and expeditious manner, are removed all those diseases which were once thought formidable;—and here, said our author, with an air of triumph surely justifiable,

'We close the present curative instructions; in which you perceive that all received theories of disease are totally overturned; symptoms, pulse, and all the deemed unerring rules are rejected, and the entire voluminous materica medica rescued from the torture of alteration and improvement. We have, in short, established a permanent peace with the entire animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, and reduced the medical library to a very small compass.

'Thrice happy the man, who, his task accomplished, shall receive the last Eternal Benediction, cease to emanate, and resign, unatmosphered, his useless house of particles.'

An elegant portrait of the deceased author is prefixed to this splendid and every way extraordinary volume.

ART. V. *Genealogical History of the Stewarts*, from the earliest Period of their authentic History to the present Times. Containing a particular Account of the Origin and successive Generations of the Stuarts of Darnley, Lennox, and Aubigny, and of the Stuarts of Castelmilk; with Proofs and References; an Appendix of relative Papers; and a Supplement, containing Copies of various Dispensations found in the Vatican at Rome, in the Course of a Search made by the Author in the Year 1789; particularly Copies of two very interesting Dispensations which had long been sought for in vain, relating to Robert the Stewart of Scotland, (King Robert II.) his much-contested Marriages with Elizabeth More and Euphemia Ross. To which is prefixed a Genealogical Table relative to the History. By Andrew Stuart, Esq. M. P. 4to. pp. 468. 1l. 10s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

THE days of chivalry are no more! exclaimed Mr. Burke, in a tone of indignant despair. We trust, however, that the virtues of our gallant forefathers will never be forgotten nor extinguished among Britons. We trust that loyalty to our king, courtesy to the fair, and courage to repel an invading foe, will never be wanting to the inhabitants of this isle; and that we shall see little cause for repining, though the fading gules and ermines of heraldry shall have lost something of their brilliancy; nor if some portion of that respect, which was

formerly monopolised by the great, be now claimed and enjoyed by the wise, the good, and the humble. Yet the pride of illustrious descent is natural to the individuals who possess that advantage, and is of beneficial consequences to society in general. Does there live a descendant of the brave Bayard, who deserved and obtained the glorious title of '*Chevalier sans peur & sans reproche?*' and is he not valiant, magnanimous, and humane? Does he not feel a more than common incitement to the performance of noble deeds? Is he not withheld by an adamantine chain from the commission of any thing base, mean, or ignoble?—To this theory, it may be objected that distinction ought to be the reward of personal merit, or (in other words) of talents and virtue; and that, by attaching it to a fortuitous and adventitious circumstance,—such as high birth,—we depreciate the reward really due to the former. Be this as it may, it is certain that the pride of ancestry preceded, and may possibly survive, every trace of feudal institutions. It is easily recognized in the most despotic states of Asia, and is not less visible in the most anarchical republics of antient Europe. It is difficult to repress a smile when we perceive Cæsar,—the destroyer of the Roman aristocracy, the uniform adulator of the populace,—taking occasion to deduce his pedigree from the antient kings on one hand, and on the other ascending even to the summit of Olympus. '*Amitæ meæ Juliæ maternum genus ab regibus ortum, paternum cum diis immortalibus conjunctum est. Nam ab Anco Martio sunt Marcii reges, quo nomine fuit mater; à Venere Julii, cujus gentis familia est nostra.*' Suetonius.

It is almost superfluous to state that the elder branch of the House of Stuart descended from Robert the Stewart, (*Senescallus vel Dapifer regis,*)—who ascended the throne of Scotland in 1371, in right of his mother Margery, daughter of King Robert Bruce,—was extinguished in the male line in the person of James V. It is scarcely more necessary to mention that the Cardinal York is the only male descendant, now alive, from James VI. of Scotland. '*It follows, therefore, that upon his death the representation in the male line of the Stuarts of Derneley and Lennox must devolve upon the person who shall be able to prove himself descended from Sir William Stuart, the next brother of Sir John Stuart of Derneley, the first Lord of Aubigny.*' The competitors for this honor are the Earl of Galloway, and Mr. Stuart of Torrance, member for Weymouth, author of the publication now before us. This, indeed, is not the first work which has appeared on the subject. In 1794 was printed a "State of the evidence for proving the late Sir John

Stuart of Castelmilk to be the lineal heir male and representative of Sir William Stuart of Castelmilk." On the part of the Earl of Galloway, there has been printed and circulated, about two years ago, a paper intitled, "A view of the evidence for proving that the present Earl of Galloway is the lineal heir male and lawful representative of Sir William Stuart of Jedworth, so frequently mentioned in history from the year 1385 to the year 1429." In that publication, his Lordship contended that Jedworth and Castelmilk were both possessions of the same Sir William Stuart, who took his title indiscriminately from either; and that he was brother of Sir John Stuart of Derneley, followed him to France in the service of Charles VII. and was killed with him at the siege of Orleans in 1429. The manner of their death is thus related in a book intitled, "*Aureliæ urbis Anglicanæ obsidio*, &c. *Autore Joanne Lodocio Miquello.*" "In that battle (des Harrans) there fell on the side of the French above four hundred men; among whom of more than ordinary distinction were Alebret, Orval, William Stuart, Verduran, Chateaubrun, Rochechouart, John Chabot, and above all the truly heroic John Stuart, descended of a most illustrious race.—This gentleman coming to the relief of his brother, who had fallen into the hands of the enemy, extricated him from danger, and, though himself wounded, made a most gallant and persevering resistance; till at length surrounded by the enemy, and covered with wounds, he sunk to the ground. His brother, who had retired from the battle, observing at a distance what had passed, again flew to present himself to the enemy, and was slain."

Mr. Stuart of Torrance, having succeeded to the estate and pretensions of the Castelmilk family, has published this Genealogical History with a view of asserting and elucidating his claim to be the representative of the House of Lennox, accompanied with all the proofs which it requires or admits. He maintains 'that Sir William Stuart of Jedworth (the undisputed ancestor of Lord Galloway) had been taken prisoner by Hotspur Percy at the battle of Homildon, on the 14th September 1402, and was soon thereafter, at his instigation, tried, condemned, and executed as guilty of high treason against the King of England, upon the pretence that he was a subject of that monarch, having in his early youth belonged to the county of Teviotdale, while it was subject to the English crown.' If credit be given to this fact, as related in the *Scotico chronicon* and by Winton, of his being put to death by Percy in 1403, it is impossible that this Sir William Stuart could have attended his brother to France in 1420, or have fallen at the siege of Orleans

Orleans in 1429; which particulars are applicable to Sir William Stuart of Castelmilk, the ancestor of Mr. Stuart.—It is not our province *tantas componere lites*.

Two centuries ago, the ancestors of these high-born chieftains would have decided these points by the points of their swords; a thousand vassals would have fought and have fallen in the cause; and rivers of blood would have been shed. In these happy days, proofs only are brought into the field on such occasions; argument opposes argument; ink only is shed in the contest; and many people may think that ink might have been much better employed, by a person of Mr. Stuart's acknowleged abilities and erudition.

ART. VI. *Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester*. Vol. V. Part I. 8vo. pp. 330. 6s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

OUR readers will be able to form an opinion of the aggregate merit of this volume, when we have presented to them a view of its various contents. We shall therefore proceed to notice each essay, classing them according to their subjects, and commencing with the

PHILOSOPHICAL *and* CHEMICAL *Papers, &c.*

Remarks on Dr. Priestley's Experiments and Observations relating to the Analysis of Atmospherical Air, and his Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.

We have seldom seen a more perfect specimen of accurate chemical reasoning, than this essay affords: it is indeed a most complete and triumphant reply to the arguments adduced by Dr. Priestley against the system of Lavoisier; a system which, by a singular fatality, is at present combated only by that Philosopher, to whose splendid discovery of oxygen gas it is indebted for its very existence.

Dr. Priestley heated 140.5 grains of black bones in 23.75 ounce measures of atmospheric air, which were thus reduced to 20 ounce measures. He also heated 200 grains of polished steel needles in 24 ounce measures of air, which were reduced to 19.5 ounce measures: an intense heat was purposely avoided; and when the experiment was made over lime water, a thick crust was produced:—the bones rather lost weight; the iron gained a little, though very inconsiderably. Therefore, says Dr. P. since the air was diminished by heating these substances, and they did not *gain* any weight in the process, the phlogistication of air is not owing to the absorption of any part of it; and, during the calcination of metals and combustion, no oxygen is absorbed.

To this argument, Mr. Rupp replies that the circumstances of the experiments were such as to preclude the possibility of accuracy. Instead of that heterogeneous mixture which composes atmospheric air, oxygen gas should have been used: the experiments ought to have been made over mercury instead of water: 200 grains of steel are capable of uniting with twenty times a greater quantity of oxygen than was contained in the quantity of atmospheric air used: no decisive effect could therefore be expected: no account was kept of the carbonic acid gas produced. In the first experiment, the carbon of the black bones united with the oxygen of the air, forming carbonic acid,—which accounts for the diminution of the air and the slight loss of weight in the bones; and the excess of azote in the residuum arises from the decomposition of the ammonia contained in the bones. In the second experiment, carbonic acid was produced by the union of part of the oxygen of the air employed, with the carbon of the steel; and the slight increase of weight in the needles arose from the absorption of the remainder of the oxygen.

Setting aside, however, these inaccurate and therefore inconclusive experiments, we find, in Dr. Priestley's third volume of his experiments on air, that ten ounce measures of dephlogisticated air (oxygen gas) being confined over mercury, and a quantity of iron turnings being introduced and fired by a lens; the air employed was reduced to 0.8 of a measure, and by washing in lime-water to 0.38. The iron being afterward weighed, "I presently found (says he) that *the dephlogisticated air had actually been imbibed by the iron.*"—"Repeating the experiment very frequently, I always found that other quantities of iron treated in the same manner gained similar additions of weight, which was always very nearly that of the air which disappeared." The remaining iron was converted (to use Dr. P.'s own words) into a substance the same with *finery cinder.*

The conclusion from these experiments is obvious: but Dr. Priestley, reverting to his theory, declares in a note that it was not dephlogisticated air which was imbibed by the iron, but only the water, which he says is by far the greatest part of it:—but what, then, is become of the air? or, if six grains of water were absorbed in the first experiment, where are the 20 ounce measures of inflammable air which should have been produced? for, Dr. Priestley says that, in passing steam over red-hot iron, the iron imbibes the water, and emits its phlogiston in the shape of inflammable air.

With regard to the decomposition of azotic gas, Mr. Rupp has repeated with care, but without success, Dr. Priestley's experiments

experiments on this subject, in which he confined rusted iron and inflammable air over water and mercury. Similar experiments with the oxyds of manganese and mercury were equally unsuccessful.

To Dr. Priestley's considerations on the doctrine of phlogiston and the decomposition of water, Mr. Rupp thus replies:—According to the Phlogistians, a metal is a compound substance consisting of a calx and phlogiston; by parting with its phlogiston, it becomes a calx; and this calx is afterward reduced by acquiring phlogiston. Dr. P. therefore contradicts his own theory, when he says, concerning the reduction by mere heat of precipitate *per se*, that the mercury was converted into calx by the mere absorption of vital air, without parting with any or very little of its phlogiston; and if this calx retains nearly the whole of its phlogiston, how does it happen that this substance yields the purest oxygen gas of any of the metallic oxyds? Again, this precipitate *per se*, if it differs from running mercury only in the absorption of oxygen, should on solution in nitric acid give out nitrous gas; one of the component parts of which, according to the Phlogistians, is phlogiston: but this is not the fact. Running mercury, when dissolved in nitric acid, produces copious fumes of nitrous gas; *i. e.* parts with much phlogiston: but yet the red oxyd which remains is as easily reducible by simple heat as precipitate *per se*: it therefore follows that mercury, whether it has a redundancy of phlogiston or a deficiency, will in all chemical processes exhibit the same phænomena!

If steam be passed through iron heated red hot, a quantity of hydrogen gas will make its appearance; the iron will be reduced to the state of finery cinder; and the weight of the hydrogen, with the acquired weight of the iron, will be equal to that of the water employed. The Antiphlogistians explain this fact by saying that the water is decomposed;—one of its component parts, the hydrogen, being set at liberty,—and the other, oxygen, uniting with the iron, and thus forming black oxyd. Dr. P. denies the decomposition of water, and says that the hydrogen gas in this experiment is the phlogiston of the iron, and that the water is imbibed by the iron. In proof of his assertion, he mentions the impossibility of reducing the iron to its metallic state, without the addition of some substance supposed to contain phlogiston;—but, from a beautiful experiment of his own, quoted above, it appears that iron turnings, heated under mercury in oxygen gas, absorbed the oxygen, and became converted into finery cinder. In reply, Dr. P. says that oxygen gas, and all airs in general, consist almost wholly of water; and that in fact it was only the water

water in a gasseous state which was absorbed. Admitting this, the effects of steam passed through hot iron, and of iron heated in oxygen gas, ought to be the same: but, in this latter experiment, what is become of the hydrogen or phlogiston that appeared in the former? either it is retained by the iron, while in the state of finery cinder;—or, oxygen gas contains no water.

An Analysis of the Waters of two Mineral Springs at Lemington Priors near Warwick; including Experiments tending to elucidate the Origin of the Muriatic Acid. By William Lambe, M. A. late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

It is impossible to do justice to this very ingenious and interesting paper by a brief abstract: the mere quotation of its title, we doubt not, will induce all who are fond of chemical investigations to give it a very attentive perusal. We shall, however, just mention that the memoir contains three new and very important facts; first; the existence, in these mineral waters, of a triple salt consisting of the oxymuriates of iron and manganese; secondly, the property possessed by this salt of enabling water to hold in solution a large portion of sulphate of lime; and thirdly, the similarity (or rather the identity) of the solutions of iron and manganese in water saturated with sulphurated hydrogen, with solutions of the same metals in oxymuriatic acid.

Experiments and Observations on the Preparation, and some remarkable Properties of the Oxygenated Muriate of Potash. By Mr. Thomas Hoyle, jun.

This paper contains a variety of interesting experiments, on the detonation and inflammation produced by the mixture of oxymuriate of potash with various inflammable substances. The smell of nitrous gas, produced on the decomposition of this salt by sulphuric acid, will doubtless occasion a series of accurate investigations, for the purpose of ascertaining the cause of so extraordinary a circumstance.

Experiments and Observations on Fermentation, and the Distillation of ardent Spirit. By Joseph Collier.

The results of these experiments are of very considerable value, both to the chemical philosopher and the manufacturer. The three grand points on which they bear, are, 1. The relative value of artificial ferments. 2. Whether the fermentation ought to be carried on in open or close vessels? 3. The effects of different factitious airs on fermenting liquors.

I. Solutions of saccharine matter may be brought to a state of fermentation without the assistance of artificial ferments, but the effect is sooner brought about when they are used; and,

and, of all the artificial ferments, yeast is that which produces the greatest quantity of spirit.

II. Boerhaave and Chaptal have mentioned the free admission of air as essentially necessary to fermentation, and it is an opinion very generally entertained by the manufacturers: but Mr. Collier has demonstrated that fermentation is not only capable of being carried on in close vessels, but that the produce of alcohol on distillation is considerably superior when the fermentation has been so conducted.

III. Different fermenting mixtures were exposed to an atmosphere of oxygen, of hydrogen, and of a mixture of the two: that which had been exposed to oxygen gas yielded the purest spirit, but even this was not equal to what would have been produced if air had been wholly excluded.

The paper concludes with some valuable practical remarks on malting, mashing, fermenting, distilling, and rectifying.

Observations on Iron and Steel. By Joseph Collier.

Mr. C. here gives an account of the reduction of iron, and of its conversion into bar-iron and steel, as practised at the Sheffield forges; and he corrects some errors on this subject, committed by Fourcroy in his Elements of Chemistry, and by Nicholson in his Chemical Dictionary, relative to the time necessary for the cementation of iron, and the mode of tempering steel.—

A section and plan of a cementation-furnace accompany the memoir.

On the Process of Bleaching with the Oxygenated Muriatic Acid; and a Description of a new Apparatus for Bleaching Cloth with that Acid dissolved in Water, without the Addition of Alcali. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.

The importance of this memoir to the manufacturer is hardly to be calculated. At the period of the first introduction of the new mode of bleaching, it was found impossible, on account of the suffocating vapours of the oxymuriatic acid, to make use of it in open vessels; and the method of applying it in a closed apparatus was found to be so imperfect, as to reduce the bleachers to the necessity of combining the acid with potash, and employing it in open vats; by this mode, a great expence of alcali was incurred, and the liquor, when thus neutralized, lost much of its activity. The present memoir (accompanied with a plate) describes a very simple and effectual apparatus for the use of the acid in close vessels, and uncombined with alcali; by which is effected a saving of 40 per cent. in the cost of the materials of the bleaching liquor.

Extra-

Extraordinary Facts relating to the Vision of Colours: with Observations. By Mr. John Dalton.

This memoir offers matter of curious inquiry to the physiologist. It was long ago observed that no definition could be given of redness, blueness, &c.—that these terms were arbitrary, yet exciting the ideas of certain impressions which are probably different in different persons. Whether the impressions of the same objects be different, or not, is of little consequence; we reason and converse intelligibly concerning them, if these two circumstances only have place,—first, the same object uniformly making the same impression on each mind, and objects that are different to one appearing equally so to others:—but if a case were to occur, in which two objects that are hardly distinguishable to one person should appear different to another, we should be induced to think that the one or the other of these two persons had a defect in his organs of sight,—at least some peculiarity.

The author of the present memoir, previously to his conviction of the peculiarity of his own vision, suspected some perplexity in the nomenclature of colours. He could not comprehend why red should be substituted for pink. Pink and blue appeared to him nearly allied, pink and red scarcely at all. In the autumn of 1792, however, he was convinced that his vision was not like that of the generality of men, by viewing the flower of the *Geranium Zonale* by candle-light. The flower is said to be pink: but to the author it appeared by day sky blue, and by candle-light a red; a colour which to him forms a strong contrast to blue. Remarking this phænomenon to his friends, they likewise observed the flower, but all agreed (excepting his brother) that its colour in candle-light did not differ materially from its colour in day-light. Having thus ascertained a peculiarity in his own vision, he did not enter into any investigation of the subject until two years afterward; and the following are the particulars and the result of this investigation:

'It may be proper to observe, that I am short-sighted. Concave glasses about five inches focus suit me best. I can see distinctly at a proper distance; and am seldom hurt by too much or too little light; nor yet with long application.

'My observations began with the solar *spectrum*, or coloured image of the sun, exhibited in a dark room by means of a glass prism. I found that persons in general distinguish six kinds of colour in the solar image; namely, *red*, *orange*, *yellow*, *green*, *blue*, and *purple*. Newton, indeed, divides the purple into *indigo* and *violet*; but the difference between him and others is merely nominal. To me it is quite otherwise:—I see only *two*, or at most *three* distinctions. These I should call *yellow* and *blue*; or *yellow*, *blue*, and *purple*. My yellow comprehends the *red*, *orange*, *yellow*, and *green* of others; and my *blue* and *purple* coincide with theirs. That part of the image which others

others call red, appears to me little more than a shade, or defect of light; after that the orange, yellow, and green seem *one colour*, which deseends pretty uniformly from an intense to a rare yellow, making what I should call different shades of yellow. The difference between the green part and the blue part is very striking to my eye: they seem to be strongly contrasted. That between the blue and purple is much less so. The purple appears to be blue much darkened and condensed. In viewing the flame of a candle by night through the prism, the appearances are pretty much the same, except that the red extremity of the image appears more vivid than that of the solar image.

'I now proceed to state the results of my observations on the colours of bodies in general, whether natural or artificial, both by day-light and candle-light. I mostly used ribbons for the artificial colours.

'RED. (*By day-light.*)

'Under this head I include *crimson*, *scarlet*, *red*, and *pink*. All crimsons appear to me to consist chiefly of dark blue; but many of them seem to have a strong tinge of dark brown. I have seen specimens of *crimson*, *claret*, and *mud*, which were very nearly alike. Crimson has a *grave* appearance, being the reverse of every shewy and splendid colour. Woollen yarn died crimson or dark blue is the same to me. *Pink* seems to be composed of nine parts of light blue, and one of red, or some colour which has no other effect than to make the light blue appear dull and faded a little. Pink and light blue, therefore, compared together, are to be distinguished no otherwise than as a splendid colour from one that has lost a little of its splendour. Besides the pinks, roses, &c. of the gardens, the following British *flora* appear to me blue; namely, *Statice Armeria*, *Trifolium pratense*, *Lychnis Flos-cuculi*, *Lychnis dioica*, and many of the *Gerania*. The colour of a florid complexion appears to me that of a dull, opaque, blackish blue, upon a white ground. A solution of sulphate of iron in the tincture of galls (that is, dilute black ink) upon white paper, gives a colour much resembling that of a florid complexion. It has no resemblance of the colour of blood. *Red* and *scarlet* form a genus with me totally different from pink. My idea of red I obtain from *vermilion*, *minium*, *sealing wax*, *wafers*, *a soldier's uniform*, &c. These seem to have no blue whatever in them. Scarlet has a more splendid appearance than red. Blood appears to me red; but it differs much from the articles mentioned above. It is much more dull, and to me is not unlike that colour called *bottle-green*. Stockings spotted with blood or with dirt would scarcely be distinguishable.

'RED. (*By candle-light.*)

'Red and scarlet appear much more vivid than by day. Crimson loses its blue and becomes yellowish red. Pink is by far the most changed; indeed it forms an excellent contrast to what it is by day. No blue now appears; yellow has taken its place. Pink by candle-light seems to be three parts yellow and one red, or a reddish yellow. The blue, however, is less mixed by day than the yellow by night. Red, and particularly scarlet, is a superb colour by candle-light;

light; but by day some reds are the least shewy imaginable: I should call them dark drabs.

'ORANGE & YELLOW. (*By day-light and candle-light.*)

'I do not find that I differ materially from other persons in regard to these colours. I have sometimes seen persons hesitate whether a thing was white or yellow by candle-light, when to me there was no doubt at all.

'GREEN. (*By day-light.*)

'I take my standard idea from grass. This appears to me very little different from red. The face of a laurel-leaf (*Prunus Lauro-cerasus*) is a good match to a stick of red sealing-wax; and the back of the leaf answers to the lighter red of wafers. Hence it will be immediately concluded, that I see either red or green, or both, different from other people. The fact is, I believe that they both appear different to me from what they do to others. Green and orange have much affinity also. Apple green is the most pleasing kind to me; and any other that has a tinge of yellow appears to advantage. I can distinguish the different vegetable greens one from another as well as most people; and those which are nearly alike or very unlike to others are so to me. A decoction of bohea tea, a solution of liver of sulphur, ale, &c. &c. which others call brown, appear to me green. Green woollen cloth, such as is used to cover tables, appears to me a dull, dark, brownish red colour. A mixture of two parts mud and one red would come near it. It resembles a red soil just turned up by the plough. When this kind of cloth loses its colour, as other people say, and turns yellow, then it appears to me a pleasant green. Very light green paper, silk, &c. is white to me.

'GREEN. (*By candle-light.*)

'I agree with others, that it is difficult to distinguish greens from blues by candle-light; but, with me, the greens only are altered and made to approach the blues. It is the real greens only that are altered in my eye; and not such as I confound with them by day-light, as the brown liquids above-mentioned, which are not at all tinged with blue by candle-light, but are the same as by day, except that they are paler.

'BLUE. (*By day-light and candle-light.*)

'I apprehend this colour appears very nearly the same to me as to other people, both by day-light and candle-light.

'PURPLE. (*By day-light and candle-light.*)

'This seems to me a slight modification of blue. I seldom fail to distinguish purple from blue; but should hardly suspect purple to be a compound of blue and red. The difference between day-light and candle-light is not material.'

Mr. Dalton then proceeds to make some miscellaneous observations, and to give an account of several persons whose vision is similar to his own. These persons are, his own brother, Mr. Harris of Maryport in Cumberland, (who had three other brothers with the same peculiarity in their vision,) two of the author's pupils, &c. In endeavouring to assign the cause of

of this peculiarity in his vision, the author conjectures that one of the humours of his eye must be a transparent, but *coloured*, medium, so constituted as to absorb red and green rays principally. He suspects that it is the vitreous humour which is coloured, and that the colour is some modification of blue.—Those who have attended to the theory of colours will easily perceive how far this hypothesis can account for the phænomena above related. It requires more time and observation than we are at present able to bestow on the subject, to pronounce decisively whether the hypothesis is competent to explain fully all the phænomena. A very simple mode, which now suggests itself to our mind, of ascertaining in some degree the justness of the hypothesis, is in the use of coloured glasses; the author trying what coloured glasses would produce the same difference in his own vision which his friends experienced in theirs, and his friends trying what coloured glasses produced the same phænomena which he constantly observes.

The inverse Method of Central Forces. Communicated by Dr. Holme.

This memoir is presented in addition to one that appeared in the fourth volume of these Transactions. Its nature, and the circumstance of its being separated from the former memoir, with which it is connected both by the notation of its propositions and the method of their proof, prevent us from entering into any examination of its matter. We shall only observe that the inference concerning the arrival of a body at an apse (p. 103) appears to us to be injudicious. If a force, for instance, varies as $\frac{A}{y^2} - \frac{B}{y^3}$ (y distance, A and B certain constant quantities,) then a body acted on by this force, and projected with a certain velocity, &c. may describe a curve of such a nature, that the points of its inflexion and of its apsides shall coincide. In this case, the line drawn from the centre would be perpendicular to a part of the curve, where the curvature is infinitely small.

Miscellaneous Papers.

Cursory Remarks, Moral and Political, on Party Prejudice. By Samuel Argent Bardsley, M. D.

A very faithful picture of the lamentable ills which flow from party prejudice is here drawn; and they are shewn to be—perverted judgment in the plainest cases, the peace of individuals invaded, the tender charities of blood and kindred dissolved; and, in its effects of higher concernment, the blood of citizens spilt, public order interrupted, and the very founda-

tions of civil society endangered. By the striking instances of Milton and Johnson, we learn that no powers of mind can ensure exemption from its tyranny.—With the learned author of this paper, we sincerely deplore these baleful effects, and detest their cause; and we would fain indulge the hope that the representation of them may induce men to eradicate the passion which gives them birth and vigour:—but we fear that the effect of these representations is neither powerful nor permanent. Men are to be reformed by different means; all join in reprobating party prejudice, yet almost all act under its controul. We are in this respect like the philosopher in Moliere's *Bourgeois Gentilhomme*, who is one minute quarrelling and fighting,—and the next, adjusting his bands and commencing a lecture on the virtues of forbearance and equanimity.

The Doctor very justly observes that a sure test of the rectitude and pure intentions of any party is the conduct of its leaders towards the moderate and peaceable class of citizens. If we attend to the truths of history, this class, instead of being deemed pusillanimous, should appear most courageous; for to be drawn between Rome and Fidenæ, has been uniformly the fate of those who have been moderate, whether from interest or principle.

An Enquiry into the Name of the Founder of Huln Abbey, Northumberland, the First in England of the Order of Carmelites: with Remarks on Dr. Ferriar's Account of the Monument in the Church of that Monastery. By Robert Uvedale, B. A. &c. &c.

As this paper can interest only those who will be desirous of entering into all the particulars of it, we shall not attempt to analyse its contents.

On the Variety of Voices. By Mr. John Gough.

The infinite variety of voices, by which men are recognized as certainly as by the difference of their features, cannot, in this writer's opinion, be explained on the commonly received notion of the nature of sound, as given in definitions. This will allow of no other modifications than those of comparative loudness and acuteness, which by no means account for the effect in question. He attributes it, then, to a combination of simple or elementary sounds differing from each other in acuteness, and separated by intervals too small to be accurately discriminated by the ear, yet sufficiently large to affect it with distinct sensations.—He next considers the mechanism of sonorous bodies, by which the combination of elementary sounds is formed; and this he states to depend on the principle that, if a vibratory motion be imparted to one of a system of elastic bodies, it is communicated in a less degree to every

every body of the system whose time of vibrating agrees nearly with that of the body first set in motion. The vocal organs of men and beasts are systems of this kind; and, possessing numberless slight variations in the elasticity and tension of their similar parts, their joint beats or pulses are capable of being diversified to an unlimited degree.

On the Benefits and Duties resulting from the Institution of Societies for the Advancement of Literature and Philosophy. By the Rev. Thomas Gisborne, *A M.*

Like the other delineations of social duties given to the public by this popular writer, the present discourse contains much good sense, expressed in polished language. Yet, perhaps, considering the age, character, and specific views of persons entering into literary societies, little attention is to be expected from them to the obvious and general remarks of a professed moralist, respecting the ends of their institution. Probably, most readers of this volume will deem this paper, however proper to be read at an anniversary meeting of the society, somewhat misplaced among the collection of its scientific labours.

On an Universal Character: in a Letter from James Anderson, LL.D. &c. &c.

This is a slight sketch of a design, the difficulty of which does not consist in the general idea, which has already been conceived by many ingenious men, but in the adjustment of particulars, and still more in the power of bringing it to actual execution; a power exceeding not only that of a learned individual, but probably of an union of all the learning and civil authority of an age.

An Account of three different Kinds of Timber Trees, which are likely to prove a great Acquisition to this Kingdom, both in point of Profit, and as Trees for Ornament and Shade. By Charles White, Esq. F. R. S.

The trees here proposed to the planter, from the actual observation of their growth in the plantations of the ingenious and public-spirited writer, are, 1. The broad-leaved American black birch, *Betula nigra, Linn. sp. pl.* 1394. *B. foliis rhombeo-ovatis, duplicato-serratis, acutis, subtus pubescentibus, basi integris; strobilorum squamis villosis; laciniis linearibus, æqualibus, Hort. Kewens.* 2. The Athenian poplar tree; *populus (Græca) foliis cordatis, glabris, basi glandulosis, remoté crenatis; petiolis compressis; ramis teretibus.* 3. The iron, wainscoat, or Turkey oak, which appears to be a variety of the *Quercus Cerris, Linn.* The details given by Mr. White respecting these trees will be interesting to those who are concerned in similar inquiries.

Some Account of the Persian Cotton Tree. By Matthew Guthrie, M. D. F. R. S. &c.

The writer begins this short paper with an enumeration of Linné's five species of cotton, of which the last, the *Gossypium herbaceum* or *G. annuum*, is the kind in question. This is called by Linné a native of America, and it may now be so reckoned: but Dr. Guthrie adduces reasons for supposing that its seed was originally procured from Smyrna for the use of the American colonies. It is now cultivated in the northern provinces of Persia, bordering the Caspian sea; and a brief account of the mode of culture is here given.

Hints on the Establishment of an Universal Written Character. By William Brown, M. D.

This paper is founded on that of Dr. Anderson already noticed. It contains many ingenious remarks on the application of signs to language, which are intended to shew the possibility of rendering visible signs universally intelligible: but we confess that difficulties appear to us to arise faster, on a close view of the subject, than ingenuity can remove them.

Account of a remarkable Change of Colour in a Negroe. By Miers Fisher.

We here meet with a curious narration, which is incapable of abridgment, relative to an American-born negroe, of African descent, but with a mixture of blood in his pedigree, from the American Indian, and from the European. No reason can be assigned for his change of colour, which has already blanched the greatest part of his skin, and is in a state of progress.

Art. VII. *The History of England*, from the earliest Dawn of Record to the Peace of 1783. By Charles Coote, LL.D. of Pembroke College, Oxford; Author of Elements of the Grammar of the English Language. 8vo. 9 Vols. 2l. 18s. 6d. Boards. Evans.

When we call to mind the various writers who, with different views and with different success, have undertaken to give a history of this country, and recollect the names of Rapin, Guthrie, Ralph, Macaulay, Henry, Hume, &c. who have all employed their respective talents in the same pursuit, we naturally inquire with what new lights a succeeding author expects to illustrate a subject which has been so often discussed. Dr. Coote appears to have expected the question; and, in a short criticism in his preface on our numerous historians, he has acquainted his readers with the reasons which led him to the present attempt, and has informed them what they will find in the course of his labours.

* Impelled by the love of fame, by views of pecuniary emolument, or by motives of a more disinterested nature, many writers have, at

different times, ushered themselves into public notice, as narrators of the remarkable events of England. From some of those historians, it would be invidious and unjust to withhold the tribute of admiration and applause; but a short critique on the productions of the most modern of these writers will constitute, perhaps, the most satisfactory apology for the appearance of a new work on the same subject.

'Hume, as an historian, has long enjoyed an extraordinary share of popularity; and his performance seems to be considered, by the majority of readers, as the best account of the affairs of this nation. His abilities were perhaps competent to the production of an history which might have far surpassed all the efforts of his British predecessors; and, if his talents had been exerted with a just regard to candor and impartiality, and with the sole view of exhibiting a fair and accurate delineation of the transactions of former days, his historic fame would have rested on a more solid basis than that which now supports it. The spirit of philosophy which animates his work gives it a manifest superiority over most of the English histories by which it was preceded. His style is elegant, without affectation; and nervous, without an appearance of labor. His arguments in defence of a favorite hypothesis possess all the acuteness of sophistry, though their force is disarmed by the application of sound logic, and the adduction of undistorted facts. Under the pretext of exposing the delusions of fanaticism, the weakness of bigotry, and the arts of selfish and designing ecclesiastics, he indirectly endeavours to sap the fabric of religion itself, and undermine the dearest interests of society. His political principles are adverse to the claims of freedom; and, under the cloak of impartial discussion, he vilifies the exertions of the patriot, and depresses the generous flame of liberty.

'The reputation of Rapin is now in the wane. The multiplicity of his errors, his want of animation, and his injudicious use of his materials, have occasioned the decline of that eminence which he once enjoyed, and which produced an unprecedented sale of his voluminous work. His general impartiality was the original cause of the success of his history; but that quality is not so conspicuous in this author as his advocates pretend; nor, on the other hand, is his performance so defective in this respect as some later historians have insinuated.

'Though Carte is supposed to have employed more time and labor on his history than any preceding or subsequent writer, his success did not correspond with his hopes. The well-known prejudices entertained by him precluded the obvious requisite which such a work demands; and the public could not be expected to cherish a very high opinion of the sagacity or penetration of that author, who, in an enlightened age, could decisively attribute the imaginary cure of the *scrofula* by the royal touch, to a sanative virtue conferred by Heaven on anointed sovereignty. Carte, however, where his prepossessions do not intervene, is a faithful and accurate writer; but he rarely displays any portion of the graces or the energy of composition.

'Guthrie was a good classical scholar, and an ingenious author. His history of England is no contemptible work; but it appears to

have been written with too great rapidity and too little attention of the mind. His remarks too frequently disgust by the vanity with which they are offered, or merit censure by the want of a deliberate examination of that point on which he confidently pronounces his sentiments.

'The charge of haste and inaccuracy, which the present critic has ventured to fix on Guthrie, is more justly imputable to his countryman Smollett, as the history compiled by the latter is solely borrowed from modern writers, whose misrepresentations he has copied, and whose errors he has multiplied. A comparison of his work with the historical labors of Rapin, Carte, and Guthrie, will perhaps convince the examinant, that he did not consult one of the original authors whom he has quoted in his margin. But his defects as an historian are in some measure palliated by that nervous elegance which often appears in his diction, and that judgment which prevents him from dwelling on occurrences of inferior moment.

'Goldsmith wrote with spirit and ability; but his history of this kingdom is a mere *epitome*, and is calculated rather for the amusement of an idle hour, than for the improvement of those who aspire to a competent knowledge of English affairs.

'Henry is an accurate and judicious author; but his plan is too detached and disjointed to please the general reader; and that division of his work which comprehends the civil and military history of Great Britain, is too concise to be satisfactory.

'Whether these strictures are so well founded as to furnish an undisputed reason for the production of a new history of the English nation, the public must ultimately determine. But the author, who now comes forward, begs leave to express his hopes, that a new work on this popular subject, comprised within moderate limits, and untinctured with the rancor of party or the bias of prejudice, will be honored with the patronage of his countrymen.

'In that performance to which the public attention is now requested, the narrative will commence from the earliest period of authenticity, and be continued to the year 1783; a memorable epoch in our annals, distinguished by a peace which separated a wide extent of colonial possessions in North America from the government of the parent state. The author will not only record every political event of importance, but will interweave such transactions of a more private nature as may tend to the elucidation of the subject. He will avail himself of those new lights which have been lately thrown on different periods of our history, from original papers and records. He will exhibit a faithful portrait of the virtues and vices of the respective monarchs who have swayed the sceptre of this kingdom, free from the warm coloring of adulation, and the invidious strokes of prejudice and misconception. He will endeavour to explore the motives that have led to interesting measures, however disguised by ostensible pretexts. He will trace the origin of our constitution, both civil and ecclesiastical; the progress of science, and of the liberal and mechanical arts; the occasional variations in the customs, manners, pursuits, &c. of the successive inhabitants of this country. By way of Appendix to each volume, he will subjoin such important documents

ments as may illustrate the context, or tend to the gratification of historical curiosity; for instance, curious state-papers, the most remarkable of the royal wills, specimens of language, &c. With respect to his style, he will avoid that affectation of profuse ornament, those meretricious embellishments of speech, which are better adapted to the florid page of the rhetorician, than to the graceful and manly dignity of the historian; and will aim at preserving that chaste simplicity and nervous perspicuity of diction, which the most esteemed critics in all ages have recommended as the most proper for historic composition.'

In a preliminary discourse, the author gives the most probable account of the origin of the primitive inhabitants of Britain, a view of the persons, dress, manners, and characters of the people, as they appeared at the time of Cæsar's invasion, and a sketch of their government, religion, commerce, and civil and military institutions. This account is very concise, perhaps too much so, considering the variety and importance of the subjects discussed in it: but, though the statement is not complete, we have discovered no instances of its being erroneous. Dr. Coote has not passed over the period in which the Romans were settled in this island, in the same unsatisfactory manner in which it was treated by Hume; who was of opinion that the transactions of that time were more connected with, and were to be sought rather in, the Roman than the British annals. Would not the same reason equally apply to the Saxon, the Danish, and the Norman invasions?—The present author, following Dr. Henry, places the time of the final departure of the Romans from this country in the year 420, though he cannot vouch for the accuracy of that date.

The first volume of this work terminates with the battle of Hastings; by which event the crown of England was transferred from the head of Harold the Second to the possession of William Duke of Normandy; who certainly had been nominated by Edward the Confessor to succeed him, if that nomination had not been confirmed by the Great Council of the Nation. We are inclined to believe, however, from the tapestry which was found in the cathedral of Bayeux, and from other monuments of our history, that William was called to the succession by the destination of Edward with the consent of the Great Council, and that Harold was sent into Normandy to acquaint him with this circumstance. Dr. Coote appears to think that the nomination was solely from the Confessor, and that Harold was sent into Normandy with a different purpose; namely, for that of reclaiming the hostages which had been sent thither on the defeat of his father, Earl Godwin.

In the course of the narrative, we were pleased with the following accurate delineation of the character of Alfred, to whose virtues and exertions we are indebted for some of our most invaluable privileges; particularly for the Trial by Jury.

'The character of Alfred seems to have made as near approaches to perfection as the frailty inseparable from human nature will allow. He was unquestionably, in every respect, one of the greatest men that ever gave splendor to a throne, or dignified the annals of a people. His capacity was naturally brilliant, and was so much improved by cultivation, that he became one of the most politic and intelligent princes of his time. His discernment was quick, his memory retentive, and his judgment sound. His talents and virtues were not only of that splendid kind which qualified him for the exercise of royalty, but were such as would have procured him a high reputation in the sphere of private life. He was bold, active, and enterprising; was possessed of great fortitude and vigor of mind, and the most steady and indefatigable perseverance. Though firm, he was of a mild and placable temper; and notwithstanding the elevation of his rank, he displayed on all occasions the most easy condescension, and the most winning affability. Some instances of great severity occur in the history of his reign; but even these do not derogate from his general character of lenity and moderation. His acts of rigor were always merited, and never unseasonable; for the disorders of the times, which mildness and forbearance would have encouraged, required, for their extirpation, the use of powerful remedies. He was liberal, without profusion; and charitable, without ostentation: and, though prudently oeconomical in the disposal of his revenues, he maintained in his court every requisite of regal pomp. His goodness of heart was conspicuous in his whole conduct. He considered himself as born to promote, to the utmost of his power, the accommodation and felicity of his fellow-creatures; and though he was personally reproved by one of his clerical friends for having neglected the occasional complaints of those who petitioned him for redress in the reign of his brother Ethelred, this neglect might perhaps generally arise from the weak foundation on which the allegations of injury rested; and if it was justly imputed to him, it was amply atoned by his subsequent behaviour. His affection for his people was ardent and sincere, and was recompensed by a loyalty founded on gratitude and attachment. His administration of justice was distinguished by strict impartiality; and the influence of rank and wealth could never procure from him a more favorable sentence than he would give to the poorest and most unfriended persons in a similar case. With respect to religion, he was less infected with the superstition of the times than any of his subjects. His devotion, though fervent, was rational; and his firm adherence to Christianity arose not from idle credulity, but from deliberate study and conviction.'

After having sketched an outline of the principal regulations which owed their origin to Alfred, Dr. Coote concludes the account with the following exalted but appropriate eulogy:

'Thus

'Thus did this excellent prince diffuse around him the light of knowledge and improvement, and all the blessings which are deducible from a beneficent, liberal, and enlightened plan of government. He was, in the strictest sense, a patriot king; one who invariably consulted the true interests of his country, and the universal welfare of his people, whom he protected as a sovereign, and loved as a father. He merited, equally with the amiable Titus, the honorable appellation of *humani generis deliciæ*: and while the splendid talents of his mind, and the glorious actions of his reign, claimed and procured to him the surname of Great, the more attractive qualities of his heart, and his constant practice of virtue, entitled him to the epithet of Good. In speaking of this revered monarch, a writer is induced to deviate from the temperance and gravity of the historic style, and launch into the enthusiasm of admiration and panegyric, for which the brilliancy of his character is an ample excuse.'

In the delineation of characters, Dr. Coote has followed the example, if he has not equalled the success, of our noble historian Lord Clarendon:

"Whose portraits boast, with features strongly like,
"The soft precision of the clear Vandyke."

The following remark (vol. ii. p. 49.) is prefixed to the character of William the Conqueror;—we transcribe it because it contains the author's reason for a practice in itself exceedingly nice and difficult, and in which very few of our historians have attained even a moderate degree of success.

'Though a reflecting reader may easily deduce the principal lineaments of a prince's portrait from the transactions recorded of his life and reign, a consciousness of the satisfaction derived from accurate delineations of personal deportment, moral habit, and political principle, may be assigned as an adequate apology for the delivery of our sentiments respecting the character and demeanor of the sovereigns who pass in review before us. As an appendage to historical record, a character has the same effect with the peroration which closes an harangue.'

Volume II. extends to the end of the reign of John, a pusillanimous yet sanguinary and tyrannical prince. The whole narrative affords unequivocal proof of learning, impartiality, judgment, and fidelity.—The character of Becket, as it is portrayed with considerable precision, and as it has been represented in opposite points of view by his flatterers and his enemies, we shall present to our readers.

'The character of Becket, which has been assailed with much obloquy, and extolled with much panegyric, will be best ascertained by the unbiassed steadiness of a middle course of delineation. He was, without controversy, a man of strong abilities, great discernment, and some erudition. His manners and deportment were graceful and insinuating, though occasionally tinctured with an air of *hauteur*. His personal courage, and fortitude of mind, attracted the

admiration even of his enemies; but the latter of these qualities degenerated into the most inflexible obstinacy, as soon as he had attained the station of primate of the English church. While he held the office of chancellor, he shone as an able minister, and a loyal subject; as a judicious assertor of the rights of his sovereign, and the independence of the realm. But, when he assumed the metropolitan rank, he adopted very different sentiments, and proved a warm and persevering advocate for all the pretensions of the papal see, however repugnant to reason, decency, or justice. He entered into his new character with the zeal of an enthusiast, the intrepidity of a religious hero, the artful spirit and the evasive morality of an ambitious priest. That such conduct was the sole fruit of hypocrisy, can hardly be affirmed with truth. That superstition of which even the strongest minds cherished some portion in those times, had perhaps so mingled itself with the conceptions of this celebrated prelate, that, in supporting the cause of the church against the profanations of temporal interference, he might think he was promoting the purposes of pure religion. Every true patriot, however, must condemn his efforts for placing the clergy above the reach of criminal law; an exemption which would naturally encourage, in that order of men, the commission of the most atrocious offences; and for propagating discord and animosity in the state, by the erection of the church into a distinct body, subject to a foreign governor, whose interests and prejudices had long clashed with the civil welfare of those states over which he arrogated a spiritual jurisdiction. In the progress of the contest which he maintained with his prince, he exhibited a violence of temper, a perverseness of opposition, and a propensity to revenge, which his panegyrists cannot excuse by all the reproaches that they have lavished on the conduct of his royal antagonist. Of his private demeanor, we are authorised, by the concurrence of historians, to speak in commendation: he was chaste, temperate, and beneficent. But these virtues were obscured and lost in the mischievous tendency of his public proceedings *.'

We wish that the author had not disfigured his pages with the French words *hauteur*, *trait*, *fracas*, *route*, and others.

* An ingenious catholic has lately appeared as a vindicator of archbishop Becket from the misrepresentations of patriotic and protestant writers. But, as he professes to feel an enthusiastic admiration for the memory of that prelate, his impartiality is, *primâ facie*, problematical; for whoever writes under the influence of enthusiasm, will *insensibly* be induced to gloss over, even in ordinary cases, the foibles and vices of that person who is the object of such warmth of sentiment; much more will he be inclined to deviate from the line of dispassionate remark, when treating of a violent contest between his favorite and a powerful antagonist; for he will then be strongly disposed to exalt the merit of the former on the ruins of the reputation of the latter. How far these observations are applicable to that part of Mr. Berrington's "History of the Life and Reign of Henry II. Richard, and John," which relates to the conduct of Thomas Becket, the reflecting reader of that work may easily decide.'

Our

Our language is sufficiently rich to express the ideas conveyed by such words, which tend to debase the dignity of English historical composition.

The legal and constitutional topics, which the reigns of Henry III. and Edward I. hold forth to observation, are in the Third Volume properly considered; though with that brevity which makes a part of the author's plan. In the capacity of a General, Edward was illustrious; in that of a legislator, he was equalled by few, and excelled by none of our sovereigns; and the improvements which he introduced into our constitution, and into the administration of our government and laws, merit particular attention. On this account, we should have been better pleased if it had been consistent with Dr. Coote's plan to have expatiated more than he has done on a reign so full of interest, and so crowded with important events. A few pages may suffice to detail the transactions of many reigns: but a volume is necessary to give an adequate view of those of Edward's time. This remark, however, must be considered as applying rather to the original design of the present work, than to the manner in which that design has been completed. An author who confines himself to nine octavos, and in that space gives a history of this country from the invasion of the Romans under Cæsar to the peace of 1783, must unavoidably omit many particulars which are interesting to the mind of every Englishman.

In a succeeding article, we shall direct our attention to the remaining volumes of this work.—Of the decorations by the hand of the engraver, we mean to speak at the conclusion of our criticisms.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Joan of Arc*, by Robert Southey. The Second Edition. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

IT affords us pleasure to see that a poem, the uncommon merit of which was recognized by us at its first appearance, [see M. R. for April 1796,] has so far obtained the sanction of the public, as to produce a demand for a second edition. We are also gratified in observing that the author has so much subdued the self-confidence and impatience of youth, as to submit to the task of a very careful revision of the whole, and to make ample sacrifices of such parts as could not stand the scrutiny of his maturer judgment. There may, indeed, be different opinions respecting the value of his alterations: but his diligent attention to the improvement of his work, and his candour in judging of his own performances,

cannot but meet with universal approbation. The nature of his corrections and additions, in general, is stated in the following prefixed advertisement:

'Since the first publication of this Poem, it has undergone a long and laborious correction. Every thing miraculous is now omitted, and the reader who is acquainted with the former edition may judge by this circumstance the extent of the alterations. Some errors with regard to the costume of the time had escaped me: in this point the work is now, I trust, correct. The additional notes are numerous; they are inserted as authorities for the facts related in the text, and as explanatory to those readers who are not conversant with the ancient chronicles of this country; for we may be well read in Hume and Rapin, and yet know little of our ancestors. Whenever I have felt, or suspected an idea not to be original, I have placed the passage underneath by which it was suggested. With respect to the occasional harshness of the versification, it must not be attributed to negligence or haste. I deem such variety essential in a long poem.'

With respect to this statement, we shall just observe that the omission of every thing miraculous is affirmed rather too largely; since the Maid's discovery of the King in disguise is still represented as the consequence of inspiration; and though her two long visions, in the former poem, are omitted, a sort of momentary trance is described, in which she had a view of her own execution. Moreover, her divine mission is still announced by 'a pale blue flame' ascending from the 'trophied tomb,' and the 'clash of arms' heard from within; which, we presume, the author does not wish to attribute to any natural cause. As to the 'occasional harshness of versification,' since it is the result of system, and not of negligence, we have nothing to remark. It certainly is not *our* system, any farther than as such harshness may occasionally prove an echo to the sense: but we do not pretend to make our *taste* a standard, in a matter which can only be decided by the feelings of individuals.

We shall now proceed to a more particular consideration of the principal changes which the poem has undergone in the new edition. A minute analysis of Chapellain's unfortunate poem, *La Pucelle*, is prefixed, which forms a curious article. In this prose sketch, it appears sufficiently absurd: but we conceive that few epic poems could stand such a test, especially where, as in the present case, there was an evident design to produce a ludicrous effect.—The opening of Mr. S.'s poem is entirely changed. Perhaps he felt somewhat of formality in the former announcement of the subject; yet we think that the present abrupt beginning ('There was high feasting held at Vaucouleur')

is

is rather unsuitable to the dignity of an epic poem, and too much in the ballad-style. The substance of the *first* book, likewise, is almost totally different. The Maid is more naturally introduced, and more conformably to real history. Instead of the taking of Harfleur, we have a pathetic story of Madelon, a soldier's wife, whose melancholy fate first roused the sympathy of Joan for the wretched. The Maid's *call* is divested of preternatural agency, and made the result of natural enthusiasm. We think that our readers will be pleased with the following poetical passage:

"There is a fountain in the forest call'd
The fountain of the * Fairies: when a child
With most delightful wonder I have heard
Tales of the Elfin tribe that on its banks
Hold midnight revelry. An ancient oak,
The goodliest of the forest, grows beside,
Alone it stands, upon a green grass plat,
By the woods bounded like some little isle.
It ever hath been deem'd their favourite † tree,
They love to lie and rock upon its leaves,
And bask them in the moonshine. Many a time
Hath the woodman shown his boy where the dark round
On the green-sward beneath its boughs, bewrays
Their nightly dance, and bade him spare the tree.
Fancy had cast a spell upon the place
And made it holy; and the villagers
Would say that never evil thing approached
Unpunish'd there. The strange and fearful pleasure
That fill'd me by that solitary spring,
Ceas'd not in riper years; and now it woke
Deeper delight, and more mysterious awe.
"Lonely the forest spring: a rocky hill
Rises beside it, and an aged yew
Bursts from the rifted crag that overbrows
The waters; cavern'd there unseen and slow
And silently they well. The adder's tongue,
Rich with the wrinkles of its glossy green

'* In the Journal of Paris in the reigns of Charles VI. and VII. it is asserted that the Maid of Orleans, in answer to an interrogatory of the Doctors, whether she had ever assisted at the assemblies held at the Fountain of the Fairies near Domprein, round which the Evil Spirits dance, confessed that she had often repaired to a beautiful fountain in the country of Lorraine, which she named the good Fountain of the Fairies of our Lord.

'*From the notes to the English version of Le Grand's Fabliaux.*'

'† Being asked whether she had ever seen any Fairies, she answered no; but that one of her God-mothers pretended to have seen some at the Fairy tree, near the village of Dompre. *Rapin.*'

Hang

Hangs down its long lank leaves, whose wavy dip
Just breaks the tranquil surface. Ancient woods
Bosom the quiet beauties of the place,
Nor ever sound profanes it, save such sounds
As Silence loves to hear, the passing wind,
Or the low murmuring of the scarce heard stream.

" A blessed spot! oh how my soul enjoy'd
Its holy quietness, with what delight
Escaping human kind I hastened there
To solitude and freedom! thitherward
On a spring eve I had betaken me,
And there I sat, and mark'd the deep red clouds
Gather before the wind, the rising wind
Whose sudden gusts, each wilder than the last,
Seem'd as they rock'd my senses. Soon the night
Darken'd around, and the large rain drops fell
Heavy; anon with tempest rage the storm
Howl'd o'er the wood. Methought the heavy rain
Fell with a grateful coolness on my head,
And the hoarse dash of waters, and the rush
Of winds that mingled with the forest roar,
Made a wild music. On a rock I sat,
The glory of the tempest fill'd my soul.
And when the thunders peal'd and the long flash
Hung durable in heaven, and to mine eye
Spread the grey forest, all remembrance left
My * mind, annihilate was every thought.
A most full quietness of strange delight
Suspended all my powers, I seem'd as tho'
Diffused into the scene."

The *second* book is much shortened by the omission of the wild but sublime vision before supplied by the author's friend Mr. Coleridge. The *third* opens with a brief but striking description of a country wasted by war:

" * In this representation which I made to place myself near to Christ, (says St. Teresa,) there would come suddenly upon me, without either expectation or any preparation on my part, such an evident feeling of the presence of God, as that I could by no means doubt, but that either he was within me, or else I all engulfed in him. This was not in the manner of a vision, but I think they call it Mistical Theology; and it suspends the soul in such sort, that she seems to be wholly out of herself. The Will is in act of loving, the Memory seems to be in a manner lost, the Understanding in my opinion discourses not; and although it be not lost, yet it works not as I was saying, but remains as it were amazed to consider how much it understands." *Life of St. Teresa written by himself.*

' Teresa was well acquainted with the feelings of enthusiasm. I had, however, described the sensations of the Maid of Orleans before I had met with the life of the Saint.'

' ——They

' ——They pass'd the Auxerrois;
The autumnal rains had beaten to the earth
The unreap'd harvest, from the village church
No even-song bell was heard, the shepherd's dog
Prey'd on the scatter'd flock, for there was now
No hand to feed him, and upon the hearth
Where he had slumber'd at his master's feet
The rank weed flourish'd. Did they sometimes find
A welcome, he who welcomed them was one
Who lingered in the place where he was born,
For that was all that he had left to love.'

So much more chastened is the author's taste become, that we find him omitting even the personifications of superstition, ignorance, and cruelty, which were before made attendants on the convocation of theologians summoned to examine the Heroine's mission. Her speech before the doctors is improved, in our opinion, by the omission of some sentiments which bordered too much on free-thinking for the age in which she lived. It is still more philosophical than is compatible with the *real* character of the speaker, but perhaps a poetical licence in this respect may be allowed. The poet's "Maid of Orleans" must not be a mere fanatical maid of an inn.

In the *fourth* book, the Heroine's severe lecture to the King, and her censure of *fasts*, are omitted. One of the first lessons taught by an author's experience is not to give unnecessary offence.

The *sixth* book represents, from history, a French trumpeter or herald as condemned to the flames by the cruelty of Suffolk. From an annexed note, it appears that Fuller, the divine, justifies this detestable deed. Such is the spirit of nationality!—There are in this book some new similies, particulary one alluding to the story of Amadis; which, with others from like sources, appears to us objectionable, as referring to incidents unknown to the generality of readers.—The new narrative of the relief of Orleans varies from the former in several circumstances.

Instead of the vision in the *ninth* book, we have a nocturnal expedition of the Maid to the Duke of Burgundy's camp, in which she incurs the danger of assassination, but prevents it by killing the assailant. She then gives the Duke a severe reprimand for his want of patriotism, and suddenly quits him. This is a short but spirited scene.

These are all the principal alterations which we discover. The diction is in many places corrected and improved; and, in particular, the licence of creating new words is considerably restrained. On the whole, we believe that the poem in its present

present state will please more readers than before; though some, we doubt not, will regret those higher efforts of fancy which displayed themselves in the preternatural machinery of the first draft. Its present character is sentimental, pathetic, and descriptive; and perhaps modern epic poetry cannot safely soar higher.

ART. IX. *Elements of the Critical Philosophy:* containing a concise Account of its Origin and Tendency; a View of all the Works published by its Founder, Professor Immanuel Kant; and a Glossary of its Terms and Phrases. To which are added Three Philological Essays, from the German of J. C. Adelung. By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo. pp. 300. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

WERE we to believe the impassioned panegyrics of Professor Kant's pupils, Prussia boasts in him a philosopher of the first water; whose metaphysical theory is not less new than incontrovertible, and who has at once extended the bounds and ascertained the limits of intellectual science. Its very addition to human knowlege is stated to consist in demonstrating that it is the utmost attainable stretch of human faculty. His scholars, like the disciples of Plotinus, seem only in doubt whether to revere him as a sage or to worship him as a divinity; from the angelic and seraphic doctors of their forefathers, they turn with awe to this incarnate logos; and they want only the trumpet of Eloa to sound his name from sun to sun. *

If we inquire among his followers for the general drift of his system, we are answered only in negations. It is *not* atheism; for he affirms that practical reason is entitled to infer the existence of a supreme Intelligence. It is *not* theism; for he denies that theoretical reason can demonstrate the existence of an infinite intelligent Being. It is *not* materialism; for he maintains that time and space are only forms of our perception, and not the attributes of extrinsic existences. It is *not* idealism; for he maintains that noumena are independent of phænomena; that things perceptible are prior to perception. It is *not* libertinism; for he allows the will to be determined by regular laws. It is *not* fatalism; for he defines this to be a system in which the connection of purposes in the world is considered as accidental. It is *not* dogmatism; for he favours every possible doubt. It is *not* scepticism; for he

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* From an inscription on a portrait of the Professor, prefixed to the volume before us, we learn that he is nearly seventy-five years old: a singular period of life for the construction of a new system of philosophy!

affects

affects to demonstrate what he teaches.—Such are the indefinite evasions of the school. Were we, however, to describe the impression made on ourselves by the writings of this Professor, (which we do not pretend throughout to understand,) we should call his doctrine—an attempt to teach the sceptical philosophy of Hume in the disgusting dialect of scholasticism.

We have had occasion to notice the controversy (Rev. vol. x. N. S. p. 524) which the first publication of this system excited among the metaphysicians of Holland. In consequence of a Latin * translation which has appeared at Leipsig, France has since become attentive to his principles; and the labours of Mr. Nitsch, (see Rev. vol. xxii. p. 15,) tending to popularize in Great Britain this dogmatic sceptioism, are here reinforced by the industrious commentaries of Dr. Willich. A very necessary portion of such an endeavour is a glossary; with which Dr. W. has occupied fifty pages, composing the central part of this miscellaneous volume; and which aspires to explain the terms of the Kant philosophy. A few extracts will probably convince the reader that these explanations have not rendered it much more intelligible.

'*Aesthetic* commonly signifies the critique of taste, but with Kant, the science containing the rules of sensation, in contradistinction to logic, or the doctrine of the understanding.'

'*Anticipation* of experience, is a cognition of objects liable to observation à priori, previous to the observation itself.'

'*Architectonic* is the art of constructing systems.'

'*Beauty* is the regular subjective confirmation of an object of nature or art; the impression of æsthetical ideas.'

'*Cognition* is a whole of connected representations in one act of consciousness; or the determinate reference of given representations to one object.' &c.

'*Cosmology*, the transcendental rational cosmology, is either the science embracing the whole of the phænomena in nature, or the metaphysical philosophy of the supersensible properties of all objects existing.'

'*Deduction*, in general, is the proof of a legal claim, a right; but in particular, Kant understands by it the establishment of a representation; the proof of the right we have to make use of it; the proof that a representation has sense, meaning, reality, objective validity, that it is not vague or empty, but relates to objects.'

'*Dynamical*, in general, is said of things, so far as we do not attend to their quantity in perception, but to the ground or cause of their existence.' &c.

'*To give (geben)* an object, is to perceive it, to observe it; to refer the conception of it to real or possible experience,' &c.

'*Immanent* is used by Kant in opposition to transcendental: the former term is applied to conceptions or principles, which are valid

* Immanuelis Kantii *Opera versit Latine* F. G. Born. 1797. 3 vol. 8vo.

in

in nature, and are used concerning objects of experience, phænomena.' &c.

'*Intuition* is every representation of variety or the multifarious, so far only as we consider the variety, and not the unity in the object.' &c.

'*Noumenon*, an object or thing in itself, external to the mind in a transcendental sense; a thing exclusive of our representation. It is generally opposed to the term *Phænomenon*, or the sensible representation of an object.'

'*Objective* signifies, in general, every thing which has objective reality, which relates to an object of sense or experience.'

'*Phoronomy* is the pure doctrine of the magnitude of motion.'

'*Pragmatical* is that which is designed for the promotion of general prosperity.'

'*Receptivity* is the passive faculty of representation.' &c.

'*Subjective* signifies that which belongs to the subject.' &c.

'*Technic of nature*, is the causality of nature in relation to those productions, which correspond with our conceptions of a purpose.'

'*Teleology* is the doctrine of purposes, or final causes.'

'*Transcendental* signifies *à priori*, and is opposed to empirical, which signifies *à posteriori*.'

'*Unconditionate* is that which is absolutely, and in itself, internally possible, which is exempt from those conditions that circumscribe a thing in time and space.' &c.

'*Wisdom* is the idea of the necessary unity of all possible purposes. It is therefore *theoretically* considered the cognition of the highest good: and *practically*, an attribute of that will, which realizes the highest good, or at least exerts itself for that purpose.'

Such words as *freedom*, *to give*, *to know*, *man*, *number*, *will*, &c. are obliged to be included in the glossary: but we have here extracted only the words which are most unusual, or are most perverted by Professor Kant from their usual signification; and which would therefore be peculiarly likely to occasion difficulty to the mere philologist. We shall not apply to the Professor a well-known line of Voltaire, in his satire intitled *Les deux Siecles*,

"*Si vous ne pensez pas, créez de nouveaux mots:*"

but we ask by which of these words is gained a more concise, distinct, or definite mode of expressing the current positions of philosophy? Are we not liable, by the introduction of several among them, to put metaphysics into a still more abstruse form, and to remove this branch of study yet further from the reach of common minds? Vanity will ever choose to repeat what it has not always the application nor the ability requisite to learn and to comprehend; and thus will arise a crowd of nonsensical praters who adopt without meaning an esoteric jargon, which they will soon render unfit for the use even of the initiated. Dialectic obscurity will be made to pass for intellectual subtilty; and the same offuscation of the

public

public mind will overshadow the modern world, which, by a similar process, the Platonists of Alexandria superinduced on the antient. The Alexandrian writings do not differ so widely, in spirit, as is commonly apprehended, from those of the Konigsberg school; for they abound with passages which, while they seem to flatter the popular credulity, resolve into allegory the stories of the gods; and into an illustrative personification, the soul of the world; thus insinuating to the more alert and penetrating, the speculative rejection of opinions with which they are encouraged and commanded in action to comply. With analogous spirit, Professor Kant studiously introduces a distinction between *practical* and *theoretical* reason; and while he teaches that rational conduct will indulge the hypothesis of a god, a revelation, and a future state, (this, we presume, is meant by calling them *inferences of practical reason,*) he pretends that theoretical reason can adduce no one satisfactory argument in their behalf: so that his morality amounts to a defence of the old adage; "Think with the wise and act with the vulgar:" a plan of behaviour which secures to the vulgar an ultimate victory over the wise. The present time is favourable to the success of such accommodating speculations. Epicurism has recently been promulgated in France in the vernacular tongue, and in works of amusement. The consequence has been a general dissolution of morals, which it is now the object of literature to remedy by removing the cause. For this purpose, philosophy is to be withdrawn within a narrower circle of the initiated; and these must be induced to conspire in favouring a vulgar superstition. This can best be accomplished by enveloping with enigmatic jargon the topics of discussion; by employing a cloudy phraseology which may intercept from below the war-whoop of impiety, and from above the evulgation of infidelity; by contriving a kind of "cypher of illuminism," in which public discussions of the most critical nature can be carried on from the press, without alarming the prejudices of the people or exciting the precautions of the magistrate. Such a cypher, in the hands of an adept, is the dialect of Kant. Add to this, the notorious Gallicanism of his opinions, which must endear him to the patriotism of the philosophers of the Lyceum; and it will appear very probable that the reception of his forms of syllogizing should extend from Germany to France; should completely and exclusively establish itself on the continent; entomb with the reasonings the reason * of the modern world; and

* At first glance, it will appear unjust to have pointed out the Kantians, who pique themselves on having removed a practical ob-

and form the tasteless fret-work which seems about to convert the halls of liberal philosophy into churches of mystical supernaturalism.

Whatever be the cast of merit which belongs to Professor Kant, that of his present commentator is in one respect considerable: he is very conversant in the history of this modern scholasticism. In the *Introduction*, he has given a valuable (if not complete) catalogue of the principal works which have issued from the German press, on this obscure or illustrious subject. To Hume's Essay on the Idea of Necessary Connexion, and to Priestley's Reply to Reid, Beattie, and Oswald, is attributed the train of thinking which ripened in the mind of Kant into the present system.

The *Elementary View of Kant's Works* is not, in our opinion, a very clear account of this philosophy. The author is less difficult to understand than his commentator. Indeed, the Professor probably understands himself; and, when the difficulty of his quaint phraseology is once conquered, he may with attention generally be followed:—but his disciples perpetually substitute the words for the ideas of the sect, and furnish whole pages which bear the same relation to reasoning, as those verses of the school-boys, in which words are connected merely with a view to the prosody, bear to poetry. This portion of the work should have formed a separate volume.

The *Three Philological Essays*, translated from Adelung, and annexed to this volume, are also sold apart, and constitute in our apprehension a more valuable work. We shall attend to the contents of each: but we would first remind our readers that

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jection to the profession of the boldest philosophy, as likely to be the instruments of eventually quenching the light of inquiry. We admit the purity of their present intentions: but their subjective conduct may tend to defeat their objective views. Heteroclitical phraseology is the first step to heteronomy of apperception,—and insanity is nothing more. The teleology of nature, which may differ from that of well-meaning individuals, has repeatedly caused Philosophy to destroy herself by her own weapons;—and we should rely more on empirical than on transcendental deduction, in a question of pragmatic causation.—Confusion of language, says the parable, broke up and re-barbarised the first civil society. Perhaps our hypothesis is influenced by architectonic prejudice; (see Rev. vol. xxiv. p. 526;) it certainly is not advanced as apodictic futurity. Can it, then, be worth while to learn to use

> This party-colour'd dress
> Of patch'd and py-ball'd languages,
> This English cut on Greek and Latin?

that

that of Adelung's German dictionary, or word-book as it is intitled, we had occasion to speak with applause in vol. xxiv. p. 560. He is also known by an excellent grammar for Germans, printed in 1782; by a cotemporary History of Culture, which well merits translation; by a work on Rhetoric *; and by various contributions to periodical publications, from which these essays are selected by Dr. Willich.

The first essay contains a concise *history of the English Language*; the second, *a philosophical view of the English Language*; and the third, *a discussion of the merits and demerits of Johnson's English Dictionary*. They are accompanied with useful and learned notes, and occasionally interpolated by the translator with well-chosen examples and instructive remarks.

The *history of the Language of England* takes no notice of the Erse or Irish, which was probably the language of the primæval settlers in Great Britain, and which has bequeathed a few (not many) words to the stock now in use. This *first* wave of population was pressed westward by the Welsh settlers, was at length wholly urged into Ireland, and thence by a returning tide came into Scotland, where it still is distinguishable. The *second* wave of population consisted of Cimbri, and was in its turn pressed westward into Wales and Cornwall, where it remains distinct. From the Welsh language of these tribes, many words have passed into general use, and some forms of speech. With the *third* or Gothic wave of population, begin the inquiries of our author. He distributes the history of their language into three periods, which he calls the British-Saxon, (he should rather have said Anglo-Saxon, British being a Cimbric denomination,) the Danish-Saxon, and the Norman-Saxon. The first begins with the Saxon invasion, the second with the Danish, and the third with the Norman. The properly English period is here made to begin with Edward I: but it ought rather to commence with Henry VIII; for the controversies of the Reformation were in fact the cause which then abolished the Norman dialect of the court, and introduced the present common English to our worship, and to our literature.

Some instances of negligence in our antiquaries are here pointed out; as at p. 36, that the name of Adam Davie does not occur in the Biographia Britannica. Of the Sagas revived in Denmark and Sweden, many relate to exploits performed in the British Isles, and deserve notice in our early literary history. Mr. Johnson (of Copenhagen) has well performed a

* *Ueber den Deutschen Styl.* Berlin, 1785.

part of the duty of an ambassador's chaplain, by presenting to his countrymen such local foreign literature under his immediate notice, as was interesting to their celebrity. From the time of Elizabeth onward, English writers become so numerous, that only the more excellent should be mentioned.

The second dissertation is not addressed to the antiquary, but to the philosopher. The following defence of the extant orthography, in opposition to those innovators who wish to make it resemble our pronunciation, is very just:

'The method of preserving the etymology of words, as adopted by the nations above alluded to, is no other than this, that people write differently from what they speak: a phenomenon, which indeed has been hitherto represented, by grammarians and philosophic linguists, as the most palpable absurdity that can be conceived; although the agreement of all the western nations of Europe, in what they have thus termed absurdity, should have convinced them, that there must be some reason for it, and which ought not to be overlooked. This reason then is no other, than to preserve, as long as is necessary, to the eye at least, the proximate derivation by means of writing, although the pronunciation has lost it; to promote thereby that universal intelligibility, which is the first and principal object of language; and, at the same time to prevent the swerving and fluctuating pronunciation, as long as possible, from further and still greater deviations.—An example or two will serve to make the matter more evident. The following words, being borrowed from the French and Latin languages, *legality*, *legion*, *organ*, *orgies*, are now pronounced *legallity*, *ledzhun*, *argun*, *ardzhyz*. If they were written in this manner, an Englishman might, at length, learn to understand them tolerably well, but he would still find a difficulty, when these words occurred to him again in their original language, to recognize his own in them. The bond of connection between the English language and its constituent parts would thus be dissolved, and the reciprocal intelligibility would thereby be rendered obscure. Further, as the pronunciation in all such mixed languages, from the causes above-mentioned, is from time to time considerably changed, many words would soon become altogether obscure and unintelligible, did not the etymological way of writing them, still maintain their true form, as long as is practicable and necessary. Besides, the adherence to the nearest derivation, and the preservation of the original form of words, by accurate writing, are likewise the means of preventing the extremely fluctuating pronunciation from still greater deviations. This is the true reason, why all the western Europeans, and consequently the English too, write differently from what they speak: and as this phenomenon has been produced entirely by "the latent perception of purpose and means," which is involved in so much obscurity, that, so far as I know, their grammarians have not yet been able to account for it; hence we receive a lesson, not to censure the like regulations, if they are universally adopted by one or more nations, until the real foundation of them has been discovered. The difference of this mode of writing from that of speaking, is indeed in itself

itself an imperfection; but in all those languages, that are so thoroughly mixed, it is a real perfection; because it preserves, at least to the eye, the immediate derivation, and consquently furnishes us with the easiest possible method of understanding words, while it serves to prevent any further deviations in the pronunciation.'

An observation on accent also merits selection, as it may facilitate a future more correct accentuation of those words of which the emphatic syllables are still unsettled.

'The accent consists in a particular elevation of the voice, with which, in polysyllables, the one syllable is as it were raised above the others: thus in *emérgency*, *emplóyment*, the syllables *mer* and *ploy* are called *accentuated syllables*. The reason of this mode of distinguishing one syllable from another, is properly contained in the nature of the word and the intention of the speaker, who, by this elevation of the voice, points out that syllable, which expresses the principal idea, and to which he chiefly directs the attention of the hearer. Hence the two accentuated syllables, above-mentioned, contain the principal ideas of the words, in which they occur, and all the other syllables denote only collateral ideas, or further determinations, inflexions, and the like. I have said, that this, in the nature of the thing, is "properly" the intention of the accent; for this reason in the German, and probably, too, in all other unmixed languages, we meet with the general rule, that the radical syllable, in such words as consist of a plurality of syllables, always receives the accent; since it contains the principal idea of the word. In the German language, this rule is so general, that the few exceptions from it scarcely deserve any attention. But as the English is a very mixed language, this rule is liable here to a much greater number of exceptions; especially with respect to the words borrowed from the Latin and French, in which the radical syllable has become obscure, so that it cannot in all instances preserve its due accent. Since I propose to resume that subject in another part of this Essay, I shall here only remark, that those words from the Anglo-Saxon, which are still current in the English language, follow this rule, and perhaps as uniformly as in the German.'

Of Johnson's dictionary, the author speaks with politeness in the *third* essay. Some opinion of it was intimated in our xxivth volume p. 559, which derives corroboration from the acute criticisms here subjoined. The principal object of this dissertation, however, is not to point out the defects of that vast compilation, but to announce an English-German vocabulary; the publication of which, this learned German philologer is to superintend.

ART. X. *A general View of the Agriculture of the County of Suffolk*; drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By the Secretary to the Board. 8vo. pp. 314. 5s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1797.

A REPORT of the agricultural state of the county of Suffolk from the pen of Mr. Arthur Young, who has long resided

in it, and who may be supposed to be more intimately acquainted with it than with any other large district of the kingdom, will naturally attract the attention of those who wish to study agriculture, and the several branches connected with it. His present work contains, indeed, a great variety of interesting information, delivered with much apparent accuracy, and combined with the reflections and observations of a philosophic mind. No man knew better than Mr. Y. what his subject required, or was more able to execute it to the satisfaction of the Board of Agriculture and of the public.—That this Report must have obtained the approbation of the Board is unquestionable: yet the secretary does not wish to plead this approbation as a sanction of his statements; and he particularly reminds the reader that 'the Board does not deem itself responsible for any fact or observation contained in the reports which they may communicate to the public.' The object of this Board, indeed, is to collect a mass of facts and opinions on the subject of agriculture, with a view of ascertaining the real state of the kingdom; and as far as this goes, the institution may be productive of utility: but we must not expect too much from it. The march of improvement is slow. Merely to point out the wisdom and reasonableness of any system, or practice, will not be sufficient immediately to remove old customs and prejudices:—but, by reiterating instruction, the most obstinate are at last brought to conviction, and the eyes of individuals and of nations are opened to discern their true interests.

Publications of this kind are undoubtedly calculated to assist practical farmers in comparing the different modes of husbandry and rural economy, prevalent in different counties, with each other;—they excite a general spirit of emulation, and must lead to an increase of the internal riches and strength of the country. To augment the fertility and produce of the soil is, in fact, to enlarge the kingdom, and to prepare for an increased population;—to promote rural industry is to aid an extension of manufacture and commerce.

Perhaps, particular views of particular counties or districts will tend more to produce this effect, than any general observations on the importance of agriculture and the necessity of improvement. They constitute a lecture to every farmer, in his own field, on his own practice; they treat of what most intimately concerns him and his neighbourhood; and they instruct the farmer of another county in practices which may be new to him, and which possibly may merit his adoption.

In drawing up a county report, however, for the perusal of the kingdom at large, judgment is required. 'It is not (as Mr. Young remarks) easy to conceive an undertaking more difficult, than to give such an account of a province, as shall

on

on the one hand be minute enough to convey satisfactory information; and, on the other, shall not be so minute as to include matter either of insufficient importance, or that is more calculated for a general treatise or report than for a local and appropriated one.'

Alive to this difficulty, Mr. Young has cautiously avoided these two extremes, and has here exhibited a true specimen of what a county report ought to be. His statement has been enlarged on its present appearance, especially by the communications of several gentlemen, which are given in the form of notes; generally, with the names or initials of the communicators affixed, as Mr. Young was not solicitous of shining in borrowed plumes.

'Under the heads of—Geographical State of Suffolk—Property—Buildings—Occupation—Implements—Inclosing—Arable Land—Grass—Gardens and Orchards—Wood and Plantation—Wastes—Improvements—Live Stock—Rural economy—Political Economy—Obstacles to Improvement—and Miscellaneous Observations,—the author exhibits an instructive survey of the district which he undertakes to describe.—To a *map of the soil* of Suffolk, he adds an account of the different management prevalent on the different soils, and suggests hints for improvement.

We shall not be expected to follow this intelligent agriculturist through the various details contained in this memoir: but a few of the facts which it comprehends we shall lay before our readers.

Mr. Young estimates that the county of Suffolk contains 800,000 acres; of which 30,000 are fen, at 2s. 6d. per acre; 46,666⅔ rich loam, at 14s.: 156,666⅔ sand, at 10s.: 113,333⅓ do. at 5s.; 453,333⅓ strong loam, at 13s.; so that the average rent of land in this county is 10s. 6d. per acre.

In noticing the course of crops on different soils, and the preparation for them, (especially wheat,) he observes, in respect of *manure*, that 'it is common with many farmers to manure their clover lays for wheat with the farm-yard compost of the preceding winter. The same husbandry is common in parts of Norfolk, where they do it with a view to a crop of barley to follow the wheat. There is scarcely any doctrine in husbandry more orthodox, than the propriety of spreading all the dung of a farm for the turnip crop; a practice on which depends not inconsiderably the progressive amelioration of a farm, since, by making the turnips as productive as possible, the live stock is increased, which increases dung, and goes round in that beneficial circle which makes cattle the parents of corn.'—There is much good sense in this remark,

and we transcribe it not only as acceding to its justice, but with the hope of exciting general attention to it.

Next to bringing manure from the farm-yard or compost-hill, and feeding off with sheep, is what is called *ploughing in for manure;* a practice to which farmers are forced to resort at a distance from towns, where the manure which they make by their stock bears no proportion to the size of the farm. *Buck wheat* is commonly ploughed in as manure for the succeeding crop. Mr. Y. informs us that the Rev. Mr. Moseley, of Drinkston, has the merit of planning and executing a system of tare husbandry, which deserves considerable notice;—The following is his own account of it:

"When I last had the pleasure of seeing you at Drinkston, you expressed a desire of hearing from me, as soon as I could ascertain the effects of ploughing in buck wheat, as a vegetable manure for wheat, after having previously taken a crop of tares for fodder. In compliance with your request, you receive the following imperfect account.

"Your excellent method of managing light lands I generally adhere to, viz. turnips, barley, clover, and wheat; but finding, from a failure of clover in my two last crops after barley, that the succeeding ones were not equal to my expectation, I determined to try something as a substitute for that excellent preparation. Tares, I was aware, were frequently sown, and excellent crops of wheat have succeeded; but, as there were near three months between the time of cutting tares and sowing wheat, I thought that something might be done in the interim, in order, not only to keep the land clean, but to improve the succeeding crop.

"It was necessary to consider what would answer this end, that would not be attended with considerable expence; buck wheat claimed the preference, as it was of quick growth, and had been recommended as a strong and lasting manure. I, therefore, determined to try the effects of it, and have reason to think that my expectation was not too much raised; for, although I cannot with that certainty ascertain the real produce of the land as I can wish, as a considerable quantity of the wheat has been destroyed by vermin, yet, still have I had the satisfaction of lodging in my granary as much as I usually have done in the common method of husbandry. The loss I sustained was, indeed, very considerable, and almost incredible, from such small animals as mice, for there was not a rat in the barn, and will be a standing memorial to me for thrashing my corn in the proper season. It was computed at one fourth of the whole crop. But, even deducting the loss, and allowing the increase to be equal to former years, will it not be right sometimes to alter the usual course, and substitute a preparation equally profitable as clover for the farmer's grand crop, wheat?

"The land upon which this experiment was made, was light, and produced excellent turnips and barley, but seldom more than a moderate crop of wheat; twenty bushels per acre, were as much as might be expected in a good season.

"But,

"But, although I cannot speak with precision in regard to the wheat crop, yet I can thus far affirm, that the additional profit from the rye, as spring feed, which succeeded the wheat, was more than equal to the original price of the buck wheat. How long the effects of this manure will continue, I cannot possibly say; but, from the luxuriance of the rye, should not have made the least doubt of its operative qualities to the ripening that crop. The expence is trifling, for you cannot find any manure, even for a single crop, equal in all respects to this for five shillings, which is in general, the price of two bushels, and is sufficient for one acre.

"But a material advantage there certainly is from two vegetable crops, the one immediately succeeding the other, in cleaning the land; for although the rye was sown as soon as I could conveniently plough after the haulm was carried off, yet, upon breaking up the land after the rye was fed off, it was much cleaner than it was after the last fallow.

"I wish I could have drawn a more accurate conclusion from this experiment, as I find that it is the first that has been made in this manner; and would not have troubled you with this, had it not been by your particular desire, it being impossible to ascertain precisely the loss I sustained, consequently, from mere presumption to offer any thing as certain from it.

"I hope hereafter to be more accurate, as I have six acres, which have produced this season twelve waggon loads of tares, and are now sown with buck wheat, to be ploughed in the latter end of this month as a preparation for wheat. The produce of these you shall be acquainted with, as I wish to give you a fair account of this, as I think, valuable vegetable manure."

'And in a succeeding letter—"I am now able to ascertain the real product of my field of wheat after my tare and buck wheat system; and it gives me peculiar satisfaction to assure you that the increase has exceeded my expectation.

"The field contained near 6 acres, including borders, and the produce was 29 coombs 2 bushels of clean wheat, so that it may reasonably be set at 5 coombs per acre, which is a much larger crop than I expected.

"The appearances at different times were such, as sometimes to promise a large crop, at others, a very moderate one. At first, vegetation seemed to be very luxuriant; this continued till April, when it changed much for the worse, and from that time till harvest, appearances were against it. For this, I believe, I can in some measure account. The tares and buck wheat were both in too forward a state; the one not to exhaust the land in some degree, the other, to afford that food for the succeeding crop which might have been expected, had the tares been cut a fortnight sooner, and the buck wheat turned in before it had formed the seed. Delays from frequent storms occasioned the latter.

"However, upon the whole, I am so well satisfied with my success, that I shall try several methods of applying this useful manure, sometimes to assist my crop with others, and sometimes, as the only manure that can conveniently be procured.

"One

"One observation I have made in watching the tare and buck wheat system, and which every cultivator ought to have primarily in view, viz. that in order to ensure the succeeding crop, it will be necessary to mow the tares as early as possible, that the buck wheat may be sown and ploughed as soon as it is in blossom. By this management, much time will be gained, the land little exhausted, and the buck wheat in a state to afford the strongest vegetable manure to the succeeding crop: and could this be performed early enough in the autumn to allow three weeks or a month for the buck wheat to rot, I would then adopt Mr. Ellis's mode of harrowing the land, and then plough and sow the wheat in broad lands, under thorough. This way, he says in his treatise upon buck wheat, will dress the ground for three years; whereas clover, vetches, or turnips, ploughed in, will, only for half the time. My grand object, in adopting this preparation, has been hitherto to secure a crop of tares as a substitute for clover-hay, and it has answered the intended purpose; the crops of tares having been uniformly good, and the succeeding crops of wheat equal, if not superior to former years.

"If what Mr. Ellis has asserted be fact, in respect to the strength of buck wheat as a manure, surely it would be well worth considering, wherein this comparative difference of buck wheat, and other vegetable manures, consists.' This only can be brought to the test by a chymical operation, and, according to my opinion, well deserving a serious trial. If you think it of that consequence in the general system of husbandry as I really do, I am persuaded that you will favour us with some experiments to ascertain the reality of this assertion, and point out the respective properties of the manures, from that and other vegetables.

"I find in your experiments upon the best preparation for a crop of barley, that beans claim the preference, and that the buck wheat land, with all the apparent advantages of the crop for manure, did not answer so well as the fallow. Having thought much of this preparation, I think that I can point out a method by which it would have answered better, and that is, by sowing the wheat stubble with tares, immediately after carrying on the muck, and then upon one earth throwing in the buck wheat. If this had been done, I question whether the crop of barley would have been worse, as the muck would have forced that, and the creditor side would have made no despicable appearance.

"If we treat this article in this manner, we must adjust our calculations in the following way *:

'* Mr. Moseley here alludes to an experiment published in the Annals of Agriculture. The observation and the calculation are perfectly fair; and had the trial been a part of my design, I have no doubt but the result would have been correctly as this very ingenious correspondent states it.—*A. Y.*'

	l.	s.	d.
To manure	1	9	9
1 Ploughing	0	6	0
Tares for seed, 2 bushels	1	5	0
Sowing, harrowing and rolling	0	6	3
Mowing, &c.	0	5	9
1 Ploughing, harrowing, &c.	0	7	3
2 Bushels of buck wheat	0	5	0
Rent	0	18	9
Sundries	0	2	1
3 Earths	0	18	0
Harrowing and rolling	0	0	10
Seed and sowing	0	10	3
Harvest	0	5	10
Threshing	0	4	6
Rent, tithe and rates	0	18	0
Sundry expences	0	3	8
£.	8	5	5

Creditor.	l.	s.	d.
2 Loads of tares, 1l. 15s.	3	10	0
By 4 quarters, 2 bushels and 1 peck barley, at 20d.	4	5	7½
By straw	0	12	4
	8	7	11½
	8	5	5
To profit £.	0	2	6½

"I think that I have not placed the tares at too high a rate to the credit account, as I really think that the fodder is well worth 1l. 15s. per load; nor do I think two loads per acre too much, as, upon moderate land, I have seldom had less: I have therefore estimated the profit accordingly.

"If we allow, according to my mode of treating your land, (see the preceding note,) the same quantity of barley per acre, it will then, instead of being the most unprofitable of all the preparations, be found infinitely the most profitable. But even deducting something from the barley crop, or throwing out the crop of tares entirely, if it be true that this vegetable manure will continue to improve a crop for three years, your experiment of a single year is by no means complete, as, according to the common course, the succeeding crops might be expected to derive much benefit from this manure.

"I have never sown buck wheat upon wet cold lands, consequently cannot ascertain the effects of it as a manure upon them: what I have hitherto done, has been upon a light sandy soil, and from experiments upon that, my mite of information has been drawn."

"I may call (says Mr. Young) for the attention of farmers anxious to become acquainted with real improvements in agriculture, to this account of Mr. Moseley's system; which is one of the best imagined arrangements that has been discovered. One ploughing puts in the winter tares; that earth is given in autumn, and consequently opens the soil to the influence of frosts; as the spring advances, and the sun becomes powerful enough to exhale the humidity, and with it the nutritious particles of the land, the crop advances and screens it from the action of his beams. Whatever weeds are in the soil, vegetate with the young tares, and are either strangled by their luxuriance, or cut off with them before they can seed. A crop is gained at a very moderate expence,

expence, which is usually worth from 40s. to 3l. an acre; oftentimes much more. But this crop is cleared so early from the land, that it would remain exposed to the sun through the most burning part of the summer for three months, as that ingenious gentleman rightly observes: if left so, there would be a call for three ploughings to do mischief, except in the point of killing some weeds. To give one earth immediately, and harrow in buck wheat, spares that expence, and covers the earth when it most wants to be so protected. But a great deal more is done; for according to this comparison, a coat of manure is gained at absolutely no expence; and the year is carried through from Michaelmas to Michaelmas, and three crops put in on only three ploughings, viz. the tares, the buck wheat, and the wheat. It is not easy to invent a system more complete. Let me go further, and remark, that Mr. Moseley in this husbandry is original: many have sown tares; and many have ploughed in buck wheat; and most have given a year to each; but it is the combination of the two that forms the merit, and is a plan not before registered; and therefore, we are to pronounce (as far as the advancement of the art is concerned), not yet practised.

'When we see the universal eagerness and anxiety expressed by the experimental philosophers of the present age, to secure to themselves priority of discovery (an anxiety fair and honourable, as speaking a noble emulation in the best paths of fame), ought we not to do justice to those who in a less brilliant, but more useful walk, invent new combinations of old practices that have the merit, because the advantages of novelty?'

In the subsequent section, Mr. Young relates some experiments made by the late Rev. Mr. Laurents, of Bury, to ascertain the distinction of winter and spring tares. As far as these experiments go, they prove a real difference; which many people doubt.

Mr. Young not only speaks highly of the culture of *turnips*, (which we deem with him the greatest improvement in English husbandry that has been established in the present century, since it has changed the face of the poorer soils,) but urges the culture of *cabbages*; though it does not appear that they are a profitable kind of crop. By being drawn and carted off, they impoverish and poach the land on which they are raised.

There is a district of Suffolk called the *Sandlings*, which is celebrated for the culture of *carrots*;—a crop which appears to be extremely profitable, as well as peculiarly adapted to a light sandy soil. 'For many years, (generally till about six or seven past,) the principal object in the cultivation was sending the carrots to London market by sea; but other parts of the kingdom having rivalled them in this supply, carrots have of late years been cultivated chiefly for feeding horses; and thus they now ascertain, by the common husbandry of a large district, that it will answer well to raise carrots for the mere object of

the teams.' Mr. Young concludes the detail of this practice, by 'calling on all persons who have sands, or light sandy loams, to determine to emancipate themselves from the chains in which prejudice, or indolence, have bound them; to cultivate this admirable root largely and vigorously; to give it the best soil they have; to plough very deep; to hoe with great spirit; and to banish corn from their stables, as a mere luxury and barren expence that ought to be extirpated; an effect that flows very fairly, from the preference which the instinct of the four-footed inhabitant generally gives to carrots.'

A cheap mode of feeding the team is an important *desideratum* in agriculture: this the author of the present memoir knows; and therefore we do not wonder at the energy of the above exhortation: but we are surprised that he does not say a word of the *parsnip*, a root equally valuable with the *carrot*, which may be cultivated both on strong and on light soils, and may be mixed with carrots for the food of horses.

A long article on the culture and manufacture of hemp occurs, which we must pass without more particular notice.

On the subject of *wastes*, Mr. Young informs us that there are in Suffolk wastes to the amount of 100,000 acres, or $\frac{1}{8}$th part of the whole, comprehended under the terms sheep walk, common, warren, &c. These, however, strictly speaking, are not really *waste*; and perhaps the old Horatian maxim, *In vitium ducit culpæ fuga, si caret arte*, may apply to the rage of inclosing and cultivating wastes. Very poor districts will not pay for fencing, and for the management necessary for arable crops. One of the author's correspondents (or rather annotators) is of this opinion; and he tells us that, within a few miles from him, several heaths which had been broken up and improved under skilful occupiers, about thirty years since, have within these last ten years been laid down again, and re-converted into heath-land. In a political view, it may be prudent to have land of all sorts: but surely the waste land ought not to bear so large a proportion to that which is inclosed and cultivated, as it does at present.

Under the head of *Improvements*, notice is taken of that valuable practice of *Hollow draining*, which, the author tells us, is general in all the wet lands of Suffolk; and which, we hope, is extending throughout the kingdom: as thus the quantity of corn produced from the same land will be greatly increased. This will better pay the farmer, and be more advantageous to the public, than his expending his money and his strength on large tracts of barren waste.—The practice of *Irrigation*, or of watering meadows, though unquestionably important, is scarcely known in the county of Suffolk.

Mr.

Mr. Young has taken much pains to ascertain the population of the county of Suffolk; and he has collected and brought together, in one view, a number of very interesting particulars, to which he has added the following statement respecting taxation.

'An account of the number of houses, servants, horses, dogs, and carriages, in the county of Suffolk in 1796:

	Houses.	*Servants.*	*Horses.*		*Dogs.*		*Carriages.*	
			for pleasure.	*for husbandry.*	*at 5 shillings.*	*at 3 shillings.*	*four-wheels.*	*two-wheels.*
Under 7 windows, -	8,376							
From 7 to 9 windows incl.	3,607							
10 to 12, ditto,	2,117							
13 to 20, ditto,	1,977							
21 to 24, ditto,	265							
25, and upwards,	602							
	16,944	1,065	4,012	33,474	6,026	4,710	456	440

'An account of the number of inhabited houses, servants, horses, and carriages, as assessed to their several duties, in England and Wales in 1796:

	Houses.	*Servants.*	*Horses.*		*Carriages.*	
			for pleasure.	*for husbandry.*	*four-wheels.*	*two-wheels.*
Houses under 6 windows,	354,391					
From 7 to 10 incl.	160,084					
11 to 15 ditto,	61,473					
14 to 19 ditto,	61,356					
20 to 24 ditto,	19,898					
25 and upwards,	31,642					
	688,844	56,850	178,784	900,700	19,070	24,305

'For Suffolk to be in proportion to England, it will contain by acres:

Horses in husbandry, - - -	15,871
Houses, - - - -	12,181
Horses for pleasure, - - -	3,150
Servants, - - -	1,001
Carriages, four-wheels, - - -	336
Ditto, two-wheels, - - -	428

Proportion by rent, of 444,000l. to 26,000,000l.

Horses in husbandry, - - -	15,381
Houses, - - - -	11,763
Horses for pleasure, - - -	3,052
Servants, - - -	970
Carriages, four-wheels, - - -	325
Ditto, two-wheels, - - -	415

'Hence it appears, that this county contains more than the double of its proportion of horses in husbandry; one-fourth more of those kept for pleasure; one-fourth more houses; about its proportion of servants; about a-fourth more four-wheeled carriages; and nearly its proportion of two-wheeled ones. This is on the supposition that the kingdom at large pays correctly.

'Let

'Let us, on the contrary, suppose that Suffolk is correct, and inquire what ought to be the proportions of the whole kingdom!

			Answer.	*Really paid for.*
If 440,000l. rental maintains	33,474 horses in husbandry,	What should a rental of 26 millions maintain?	1,978,009	900,000
	4,012 horses for pleasure,		237,072	178,000
	16,944 houses,		1,001,235	688,000
	1,065 servants,		62,931	56,000
	456 4-wheel carriages,		26,945	19,000
	440 2-wheel ditto,		26,000	24,000'

On the whole, this work reflects credit on Mr. Young, not only as a rural but as a political economist, and may serve as a guide to other reporters. We most sincerely wish that the agricultural surveys of the several counties may be so executed, as to collect from every district the most valuable and accurate information, and to throw light on the real state and capability of the country.

Accompanying this memoir, are a map of the soil of Suffolk—a plate exhibiting a machine called the *extirpator*, for destroying weeds, invented by a Mr. Hayward of Stoke Ash—and another plate representing a stage to assist in building the upper part of hay-stacks.

ART. XI. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΕΚΑΒΗ. *Euripidis Hecuba, ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendata, et brevibus Notis emendationum potissimum rationes reddentibus instructa. In usum studiosæ Juventutis.* 8vo. *Londini*, Wilkie. 1797.

ART. XII. IN EURIPIDIS HECUBAM *Londini nuper publicatam Diatribe extemporalis. Composuit* Gilbertus Wakefield, *A. B.* 8vo. *Londini*, Cuthell.

ART. XIII. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΟΡΕΣΤΗΣ. *Euripidis Orestes, ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendata, et brevibus Notis emendationum potissimum rationes reddentibus instructa. In usum studiosæ Juventutis.* 8vo. *Londini*, Wilkie. 1798.

SOME apology is due from us to our readers, and to the authors of these works, for the appearance of neglect, in having permitted so long a time to elapse between the publication of the two former, and their being admitted to take their station in the Monthly Review.

Ἁπλοῦς ὁ μῦθος τῆς Ἀληθείας ἔφυ.——Some few arrangements were made for a critique on the new HECUBA, when Mr. Wakefield's DIATRIBE appeared. It instantly occurred to us, on perusing these extemporaneous remarks, that the editor of the Greek tragedy might, perhaps, be induced to answer them, in a preface to the play next expected: in which case, we should have judged it necessary to have presented an account of the passages in dispute to our readers, and to have stated, at the same

same time, our own opinion at length, and without restraint. The ORESTES, however, is now published, but without any preface.—It seemed also that a second *Diatribe* might have followed this second *tragedy*: but, no such publication having reached our knowlege, we judge it proper to include the reviews of the *Hecuba*, the *Diatribe*, and the *Orestes*, in one article.

We shall now begin our examination without farther preamble; only observing that, though the name of the editor is not prefixed to the *Hecuba* and the *Orestes*, internal evidence and some other circumstances have induced us to adopt the general opinion, which attributes them to Mr. Richard Porson, the Greek Professor in the University of Cambridge. FIRST, then, for

HECUBA. *Præfatio.*

The Preface, which is given with this tragedy, may in some degree be considered as an introduction to the appearance of a complete Euripides: whose plays the editor purposes to publish in separate little volumes, and in the common order. It begins with informing us that, '*nihil hic exquisiti aut reconditi expectandum; tironum usibus hæc opella potissimum destinata est.*' The Professor then proceeds to this purpose:

'The text of this tragedy, if not perfectly correct, is, at least, purer than it has yet appeared. In all places in which the usual reading has been altered, the source of the change is mentioned in the notes; in which the lections of the Aldine editions are recorded; except in those cases which belong to a common source of error, such as the Dorism of μάτηρ for μήτηρ, and the addition or removal of the final I, or IN. *

'The *Variæ Lectiones*, except such as are manifestly erroneous, are generally mentioned; though the authorities on which they depend, from the inattention of former editors, cannot always be fairly weighed, nor accurately enumerated.'

He then adds: '*Quotiescunque Euripidis loca ab antiquo quopiam scriptore cum varietate lectionis laudari memineram, sedulo monui* †.'

In the perusal of the observations on these two plays, it has been with us a subject of regret, that the editor has not recorded all the authors who have cited verses from them, or

* This edition of Aldus bears the date of MDI. It contains 18 Plays. Four of these only had been published a few years earlier, in capital letters, at Florence. The Electra first appeared in 1545, at Rome.

† A noble collection of various readings will be derived from this source; which we beg to recommend earnestly to the attention of those who undertake the publication of the antient Greek writers.

whose

whose allusions to them are evident. Those who exhibit new readings are doubtless of the most consequence: but still those who defend the common text ought not, in our opinion, to be neglected. In how many instances might the corrections of modern critics be proved unnecessary, by such an assemblage of references?—In how many instances might the style of the Attic plays be illustrated, and the sentiments be elucidated? Not merely these poets, however, would derive great advantages from such a measure: the authors, in whom the quotations are found, would reap still greater. The blunders which have arisen from the words of a citation being confounded with those of the original writer are innumerable.—Mr. Porson has not excluded these authorities from his Notes: but it is to be lamented that they were not studiously admitted. He, and he alone, could have presented us with such a collection of them as might be deemed nearly complete. His memory appears to be eminently tenacious: his reading seems to have extended through nearly the whole range of Greek literature; and his familiar acquaintance with the remains of the Attic stage, both the tragedies and the comedies, may be clearly seen in every page of his observations.——To proceed: Mr. Porson next observes;

'*In vocibus per crasin conjunctis, ut κἄτι, καὶ, κἀν* (i. e. καὶ ἐι, καὶ ἀν) *et similibus scribendis, rationem a vetustioribus MSS. servatam diligenter secutus sum. Iota scilicet nusquam addi oportet, nisi ubi καὶ cum diphthongo crasin efficit, ut ἰὴ κἄτα pro καὶ εἶτα. Hoc post alios monuit Dawesius.*'

'Ali, *Piersono jubente, Brunckio non nolente, semper sine diphthongo scripsi, idem facturus in* ἀττὸς, κλαὶω *et* κἀκ.'

'*Brunckius secundas futuri passivi indicativi personas in* ει *semper, non in* η, *terminavit; secundas etiam præsentis ego ad eandem formam reduxi. Analogia nempe postulat, ut vocalis corripiatur in indicativo, producatur in subjunctivo,* τύπτομαι, τύπτῃ, τύπτηται, τυπτώμεθα, τύπτησθε, τύπτωνται.'

He then informs us that, in his Hecuba, there is no instance of *augmentum verborum omissum*, nor of an *anapæstus in pari sede*.—As to the *first*, he says: '*Planè persuasum habeo, non licuisse in Attico sermone augmentum abjicere.*' As to the *second*, he observes:

'*Brunckius, qui anapæstos in secundo et quarto senarii loco subinde defendit, fatetur tamen Tragicos hanc licentiam, quantum poterant, vitasse. Quidni igitur semper vitarint? An volebant, et tamen nequibant? An casu et incuria eos has maculas fudisse arbitrabimur? Adde quod MSS. auctoritate, scriptorum citationibus, et criticis argumentis exemplorum, quæ in hanc partem laudari solebant, numerus jam valde imminutus est.*

'*Aliam ipse rationem adjicio, quæ si vera est, omnes, opinor, anapæstum paribus senarii locis semper excludendum esse ultrò agnoscent. Hanc ra-*

*tionem, non plane quidem novam, plerisque tamen ignotam, quam brevissime explicabo. Tantum scilicet abest, mea sententia, ut anapæstus pro secundo aut quarto pede ponatur, ut ne pro tertio quidem aut quinto substitui possit. Hoc de tertio pede si quis verum esse concedet, concedet a fortiori, ut Logici dicunt, de quinto etiam verum esse. Dactylus enim, qui in tertia sede creberrime usurpatur, in quinta nunquam apparet. Anapæstus igitur, si illa excluditur, hanc intrare non potest.**

We have transcribed the Professor's words, because the admission or rejection of augments and anapests has been long and frequently a subject of bitter dispute among the critics. In our opinion, the questions never merited discussion: but they are now, it may be hoped, completely settled: for the single passage, in which the augment was once omitted, in the Hecuba, no longer appears; and those verses in which there were anapests in the second, third, fourth, or fifth places, are successfully corrected in this first play. We doubt not that they will be emended with equal ability in the other tragedies, when they are brought before the public by Mr. Porson *.

As to Æschylus and Sophocles, there are six instances of an anapest *in tertia sede* †, in the former, and four in the latter. These are thus incontrovertibly amended:

I. *Æ. Prom.* 246. Καὶ μὴν φίλοις ἐλεινὸς εἰσορᾷν ἐγώ, instead of ἐλεινός. Ruhnkenius, to whom Mr. P. refers, on the Hymn to Ceres 283. [not 264.] has only quoted a part of the article from the *San German* grammarian. The whole shall follow, as it stands in our transcripts from the MS. which was once in the Coislinian library: Ἐλεινὸν, ἀντὶ τοῦ Ἐλεινόν. Ῥιπαλὶς Ἀξίν. Πλάτων δὲ Πολιτικῷ καὶ ἐλεινὸν τὸν Ἐλεινὸν τίθεται.

II. *Agamem.* 664. Ἥρπασον· αἱ δὲ περαιωτούμενας βίᾳ, for περαιωσούμενας.

III. *Choëph.* 654. Ἔστιν φιλαξέα ὅστις Αἰσίου βίᾳ, instead of φιλάξενός ἐστιν.

IV. *Eumen.* 896. Πάσης ἀπήμων' οἰζύος· δέχου δὲ σύ—for οἰζύος. The Attics always, as Pierson observes on Mœris,

* Mr. Porson might have compared the formation of the trochaic with that of the iambic verse. In the former, the *dactyl* is admissible only in the *sixth* place; and in the latter, the *anapest* is allowable only in the *first*. We have not room to enlarge on this subject, but must be contented with remarking that, as the *iambus* is ἀπίστοιχος to the *trochæus*, so is the *anapæstus* to the *dactylus*.

The learned reader is particularly requested to excuse any errors which he may observe in the Greek typography of this article. They must find their apology in the hurry in which a periodical work must inevitably be printed.

† Those in the second and fourth places are not mentioned in the Preface. They have generally been corrected by the editors.

write οἰζύς, and the Aldine edition, in this verse, gives Οἰζύος. They also used Ὄις, Ὀκλής, Ὀιλεύς, and Ὀιστός; of which word Mr. Porson remarks, '*in Euripide usque ad hunc diem semper editum est* οἰστός, *contra versus metrum, contra grammaticorum auctoritatem.*'

V. *Suppl.* 800. Πρὸς ὃν νέφη δ' ὑδρηλὰ γίγνεται χιών, as it stands in Aldus and Robertellus, and not δι' ὑδρηλά.

VI. In a fragment of Eschylus, *ap. Plut. de Consolat.* p. 106. Ὅστις μέγ' ἐσθ' ἕλμα τῶν πολλῶν κακῶν, is the correction of Grotius, Excerpt. p. 55. instead of μέλιστον ἕλμα.

VII. SOPHOCLES, *Aj.* 524. Ὅστις γένοιτ' ἂν ἔνδικος ἐνδικῆς ἀνήρ, instead of Οὐκ ἂν γένοιτό ποθ' οὗτος ἐνδ. ἀ.——emended, *legendo* ὅστις ὅτε *pro* ὅταν, from the *Corpus Ch. Oxon.* most excellent MS. of Suidas.

VIII. *O. T.* 248. Καλῶ κακῶς νιν ἄμορον ἐκβρίψαι βίου, for ἄμοιρον.

IX. *Phil.* 1288. Πῶς εἶπας; ἆρ' οὐ [or ἄρα] δεύτερόν σ' ὀλούμεθα; by conjecture, instead of οὐκ ἄρα· δέδιμεν.

X. And *apud Hesych.* V. ἀνθιπλασίων. Τὸν ἀνθίπλασίον νόμον ἔχει κεκμηκότων, for ἔχει νόμον.

These alterations are defended by such certain arguments, that no critic, we imagine, will in future allow an anapest in any foot of an iambic verse, but the FIRST, with the exception of proper names. The learned will peruse this part of the Preface with singular pleasure, and, if we be not deceived, with much advantage. He must be referred to the book for the editor's account of these changes, as the passage is too long for transcription.——

The acuteness of this canon, and the simplicity of the emendations which were proposed for the questionable verses, seemed calculated to demand universal applause: but to please all is rarely the lot of a philological writer; and the Greek Professor must share the general doom of Greek critics! The new HECUBA had been published only a few weeks, when a review of it appeared under the title of DIATRIBE EXTEMPORALIS, avowedly the production of Mr. GILBERT WAKEFIELD. In the opening of it, after a severe censure on Mr. Porson for not omitting the N. *paragagicum*, (on which point we shall deliver our sentiments in another part of this article,) Mr. Wakefield declares his dissatisfaction with the Notes on the *fourth* and *ninth* of these ten passages; principally, perhaps, because his own name and his own labours are not recorded in them by the editor.——On the *fourth*, Æ. *Eumen.* 896. Mr. Wakefield tells us that, in his own edition of this play, in the *Tragœdiarum Delectus*, he has given Οἰζύος, and not Οἰζυός. Mr. Porson, perhaps, never examined this *Tragœdiarum Delectus*

lectus of Mr. Wakefield: but, even if he had consulted it, there appears no reason for its being mentioned on the present occasion. Ὀιζόος is the lection of the Aldine, the *princeps* edition, and is therefore properly noted.

In the comments of Mr. Wakefield on this tragedy, the reader might justly have expected some reason to be assigned, why Οιζυος occupied the place of Ὀϊζύος, as Pauw and others have printed the word; and there also, if the *restoration* was really *intentional*, the lection of Aldus, and the judicious canon of Pierson, ought to have been carefully registered.—In reply to the latter part of Mr. Porson's observation on these Attic words beginning with OI *sine resolutione*, Mr. W. thus proceeds:

'*Quod pergit affirmare solidissime V. D. p.* xi. "*In Euripide usque ad hunc diem semper editum est* οἴστος." *id plane in falsissimis habendum; nam nos disertissime edidimus in Herc. fur.* 194. *ad hunc ipsum modum:*

μυρίας οιστους αφεις.

Pene inducor, ut V. D. Homereis verbis alloquar, te, lector! ut putem, non improbante:

Ατρείδης μη ψευδε', επισταμενος σαφα ειπειν.'

Mr. Porson should undoubtedly have limited his remark about ὀϊστὸς, in Euripides. The mark of *diæresis* is found in the Aldine, *Med.* 640. ὀ·ϊστόν. *Andr.* 1134. ὀ·ϊστοί. and *Herc. Fur.* 194. ὀ·ϊστούς. In the two former places, Barnes states that the word must be read διασυλλαβῶς, and in the latter he has published ὀϊστοὺς, with, *i. e.* ὀ·ϊστούς, on the margin. The merit, therefore, of printing ὀϊστοὺς in the *H. Fur.* belongs to Barnes, and not to Mr. Wakefield; who should have mentioned the variation of the *Aldine* and *Barnesian* editions, in his Notes, and should have produced his reasons for following the latter,—if, indeed, the change was intentional.

It is not, however, easy to determine whether the mark of *diæresis* is to be expected in an edition of a Greek poet, from which *accents* and half the *spirits* are almost wholly discarded. In this collection, indeed, Mr. Wakefield, in *Ion.* 473. instead of Φοιβήιος, gives:

Φοίβηιος ενθα γα.

Φοιβήιος, as it stands in the note, is wrong as to the place of the accent, though right as to the *diæresis*. The antistrophic verse demands in this line an *Ionic à majore*. It must also be mentioned that, in Mr. W.'s *Trachiniæ* 237. the *diæresis* is used where it is not wanted, in the word Ευϊοῦς, which Brunck likewise prints in the same manner.

Mr. Wakefield, as was mentioned, is also dissatisfied with Mr. Porson's correction of the ninth instance: *Soph. Phil.* 1288, ἄρα, or ἄρ' ἐν, instead of ὦν ἄρα; and says: '*Pro-*

quncient eruditi, an nos in editione nostrâ non dudum doctius, exquisitius, atque etiam leviore operâ, correximus; aurium ope vitium sentientes, sed originem ejus eâ, quâ V. D. sagacitate non valentes indagare: Πως ειπας; ΟΥ ΓΑΡ δ. δοκουμεθα.'

In correcting the antients, no *opera* can be *levior* than transposition; for, as Mr. Porson observes in his Preface, '*tutissima proinde corrigendi ratio est, vocularum transpositio.*' Ἀρ' οὐ we deem the preferable emendation. It has more force than ἄρα alone; and as for *ου αρ*, some explanation is required respecting γὰρ, beyond what appears in Mr. Wakefield's note on the passage, either in his *Delectus*, or in his *Diatribe*.

To return to Mr. Porson's Preface. With regard to the choral systems, two rules are principally adopted: '*Primo curavi, ut quodque carmen ad nota et Lyricis poetis usitata, si facile fieri posset, versuum genera redigeretur; deinde, ut eadem, aut similis versuum species quàm sæpissimè recurreret.*'—Mr. P. then remarks that it is difficult to define the licences, in which the tragic writers indulged themselves with regard to *dialect*. Some *Ionisms*, such as ξεῖνος, μοῦνος, γοῦνάλα, κοῦρος, and δοῦρι, are found; even though the Attic word ξένος, and so on, be admitted: but the greater number of these irregularities have been introduced from Homer by unskilful transcribers. The instances of Dorisms in the Choral Odes are, indeed, more readily reduced to rule: but these forms are not regularly preserved even in the best MSS.—where moderate copies have them, they are inserted in the text of this new Hecuba.

Mr. Porson has used, besides the edition of Aldus, those of Barnes, of King, and its repetition by Morell, of Musgrave, and of Beck; and he has given new collations of two MSS. in the library of the R. Society, and of a third in the British Museum.

The Preface thus concludes:

'*Interpretandi et illustrandi labore* *, *utilissimo sane, supersedendum duxi, partim ne libellus in librum excresceret. Loca tantum quæ Latini imitati sunt, prout memoria suggessit, adscripsi. Raro sum interpretis vice functus, nisi ubi cum critici officio conjunctum esset. Sin autem in ulla re justo parcior visus fuero, in sequentibus fabulis, si quas posthac edidero, hoc vitium emendare annitar. Hoc enim monendus est lector, cæteras Euripidis fabulas ordine vulgato singulas mox prodituras, si modo hoc specimen reipublicæ literariæ non displicere intellexero. Si opus ad finem perduxero, addam observationes quasdam in varia Scenicorum Poetarum metra.*'

It may naturally be expected that, according to our usual plan, we should now proceed from the Preface to the work it-

* These words demand the serious consideration of the reader: for, in defiance of this declaration, Mr. Wakefield, in his Diatribe, frequently censures Mr. Porson for not having acted the part of an interpreter in his notes on Hecuba.

self: but, as several parts of it have been brought forwards and examined by Mr. Wakefield, in the Tract which has been already mentioned, an attempt shall first be made to investigate the truth of the objections which have been raised against these particular passages. They shall be taken in the order which is assigned to them in the DIATRIBE. After this discussion, if our limited bounds are not too far exceeded, we shall add some remarks on the Notes and plan of Mr. Professor Porson.

The reader is already informed that the DIATRIBE EXTEMPORALIS of Mr. Wakefield appeared very shortly after the publication of the HECUBA. The work, indeed, in general, bears evident marks of haste in the objections which are advanced, and in the alterations which are proposed: in the Latinity, and in the general style of the composition.

These *objections* and *alterations* we must now discuss. As to the *Latinity*, it is not our wish to be fastidious in examining the language of critical disquisitions: but as to the universal complexion of the whole *Diatribe*, we assert, in the most unqualified manner, that the resentful spirit by which the author's remarks appear to have been dictated, and the splenetic style in which they are written, blended as it is with a mixture of what he calls (p. 40) *amœnitatum ac leporum condimentis*, can never be too severely condemned.

The genuine CRITIC, when he undertakes the examination of any work, deliberates with coolness, and investigates with caution. His objections are stated with civility, unalloyed by sarcasm; and his opinions are delivered with firmness, unmixed with petulance. His judgment is not obscured by an overweening confidence in his own acquirements. His taste is not vitiated by a perpetual search after novelty. His ardour in the cause of learning is superior to petty considerations; and the sportive obtrusions of a playful fancy never diminish the force of his arguments. He proposes his own emendations with diffidence; while he does not rashly infer that the silence of his contemporaries has its source in malevolence; nor does he attribute their objections to a desire of degrading him from that post, to which he is entitled in the ranks of literature.

Such are *our* sentiments. Mr. Wakefield, indeed, thus describes his own motives: '*Pauculæ — deproperato calamo commentabimur; candidum literatæ reipublicæ judicium libenter periclitati, et animo a spe, metu, atque affectibus quibuslibet iniquis, absolutissime defæcato.*' *Præf. Diatrib. Extempor.* p. 4.

With the HECUBA of Mr. Porson, and the DIATRIBE EXTEMPORALIS of Mr. Wakefield, the ANIMADVERSIONS of the Monthly Review shall now be submitted to the Public; and before

before that tribunal let the merits or demerits of the Editor, of the Critic, and of the Reviewers, be decided.

The DIATRIBE EXTEMPORALIS

consists of forty pages: four of which are occupied by the title and preface: the following thirty-three are filled with remarks on the HECUBA of Euripides, which relate principally to Mr. Porson's edition of that tragedy; and the last three exhibit some reasons for the publication of this pamphlet. From these *, let the reader accept the following extract, in the words of the author:

'*Meliore luto fiti, et affectibus benignioribus emolliti, qui verus fructus est doctrinæ, sententiam ferant velim, an vir, nusquam non a me plausibus exceptus, atque habitus amice, excusandus sit, qui, in simili materiâ versatus, datam occasionem mei cohonestandi non modo non arripuerit, (neque enim id fuissem questus) sed tali negligentiâ præterierit, qualis haud immut obscure, verum contra palam promulget, legentibus universis, mea in literas Græcas merita nullius esse prorsus pretii; et memet insuper indignum utique, de suâ saltem opinione, qui doctorum cœtibus inscribar. Sin autem hic cessarem, neque acriter calumniam, silentem quidem, sed (ut ille ait) πάντος ἐλληλοτέραν λογου, propulsarem gnavi hominis officium per vecordiam pudibundam mihi viderer prodere, et αναλγησιας turpissimæ jure postulandus. Sed nec vecors sum, neque αναλγητος· et militiæ meæ signum, quod prius (ut qui per omnem vitam tot incommoditatibus impeditus fuerim, ne dum Etonensium disciplinarum, quas in summâ felicitate posuissem, fructus) formidâvissem protulisse, certe Hecubæ facit publicata, ut audatur proferam:*

'SPECTEMUR AGENDO.'

Thus is the gauntlet thrown:——but the challenge has not been accepted.——Mr. W. published this *Diatribe* because neither his name nor his observations on the HECUBA were mentioned in Mr. Porson's notes on that play; and now, the *Orestes* is published, and the same silence is observed.

At the end of the tract is a list of Mr. Wakefield's works, and a short account of his LUCRETIUS: a part of which only, at that time, had appeared. The three volumes are now completed; and the whole work forms an elegant and splendid ornament for public libraries, and for the cabinets of the curious. It must, indeed, ever rank highly among the specimens of English typography, and must be considered as the grandest edition of Lucretius which has yet been published.

The remarks in the *Diatribe* are about fifty in number. They shall all be noticed, in the cursory account of the new Hecuba and Orestes which we intend to lay before our readers; and, for the sake of brevity, we shall generally venture

* The censure passed on the translator of Aulus Gellius, p. 39. is, in our opinion, improperly introduced into the *Diatribe*.

to mark Mr. Professor Richard Porson's notes with R. P. only, and those of Mr. Gilbert Wakefield with G. W.

V. 13. Ὃ καί με γῆς Ὑπεξέπεμψεν—

Mr. Porson says: '"Ο *videtur cum Schol. Barocc. interpretandum*, τὸ εἶναι νεώτατον, quæ res scilicet. *Alii pro* δι' ὃ *accipiunt. Litem dirimeret MS. Harl. si ejus lectionem* ὦ *amplecteremur.*'

Mr. Wakefield says: 'V. D. *formulam in V.* 13. *parum percepit, licet pervagatissimam:* —— *quam Lucretio frequentatam atque nobis ibidem sæpiuscule illustratam, piget hic vexare.* —— *Harl. MS.* ὦ —— *in hoc sensu, pace V. D. dixerim, ne Græcitati quidem affinem puto.*'

It would have been more satisfactory, if Mr. Wakefield had stated his own explanation of Ὃ, and opposed it to that of Mr. P.; and if he had advanced some proof that the Professor did not understand the construction of the relative. We do not conceive why ὦ, the Harleian lection, should be considered as not *affinis Græcitati*; though the explanation of the Baroccian Scholiast has always appeared clear and satisfactory. It still seems to us preferable to any other; and this opinion will not be readily shaken, while it is thus defended by the authority of Valckenaer: "In Hecuba, V. 13. Νεώτατος δ' ἦν τριαμιδῶν· ὃ καί με γῆς Ὑπεξέπεμψεν *malè dederant* διὸ quamobrem *vel* quare, *cum nihil aliud sit quam* quod ὅτερ, *scilicet* τὸ εἶναί με νεώτατον τῶν ἀδελφῶν, —— γίγονεν αἴτιον τοῦ ἐκπεμφθῆναι με. *prouti recte cepit Scholiastes in Cod. Barocc.*" The whole of Valckenaer's note is excellent, and demands a careful perusal from the readers of this passage in the Hecuba.

Mr. W. commends Mr. P. for observing that '*in adjectivo* πάλῳκα *contineri substantivum* πᾶλη, *quo refertur* αὐλός.' Mr. P., he adds, gives three examples of this *schema*, but has not mentioned Mr. W.'s note on one of them, Soph. Trach. 259. where he has produced '*plura et reconditiora*;' as also on Lucret. I. 353. We think that Mr. W. should not have been offended at this silence; as the Professor seems studiously to have avoided crowding his notes with references to the illustrations of the critics on the tragedies. On several occasions, he has omitted to quote even Valckenaer himself.

32. Τρίλοιον ἤδη φέγγος ἀϊσσόμενος.

R. P. '*Mira locutio,* τρίλοιον φέγγος *pro simplici* τρίτον. *Uno tamen exemplo se, ipse Euripides defendit Hippol.* 275. Πῶς δ' οὐ, τρίλοιαν γ' οὖσ' ἄστολος ἡμέραν;'

G. W. '*Incogitantiam equidem V. D. satis mirari nequeo. Nimirum, quisquis* αἰωρεῖται τριταῖον ἡμέραν, *per* tres dies αἰωρεῖται· *qui vero* τριτον ἡμέραν, *per* unum *solummodo ex tribus. Optime et Græcissime D. Joannes,* xi. 39. Κύριε, ἤδη ὄζει· ΤΕΤΑΡΤΑΙΟΣ γάρ ἐστι. *Age vero substitue* τετάρτος, *et omnia corrumpes ac pessum dabis: nec* τριτον *tamen minus Euripidis menti* dissonveniret.

disconveniret, nisi verborum tenorem mutes, et ingenium constructionis. Hoc autem, sit licet nonnihil inconstantiæ scriptoribus, generaliter verum est, et rectum. Ut, quid velim, breviter definiam, τριταιος ἡμέρα in eâdem re successionem indicat; τριτης, non item.'

How can the masculines, τρίτος and τριτᾶιος, be joined to the feminine ἡμέρα? How can τελεταῖος [ἄνθρωπος] in St. John, illustrate τριταῖον φέγγος or τριταία ἡμέρα? The mere *continuation of time* is sufficiently marked by the *accusative case*; and the singularity of the expression in Euripides arises from the adjective τριταῖος, which comprehends in itself the notion of continuance of time, being joined to a substantive which also signifies time. The termination αιος, in this and in similar adjectives, is probably derived from αει or αιει, being incorporated with an ordinal.—As we have transcribed the whole notes of the editor and of his critic, in order to render the point in question perfectly clear, we beg to recommend the following words of Valckenaer to the reader's consideration. HIPPOLYTUS 274. Τριταῖαν ἡμέραν.] "Τὴν τρίτην ἡμέραν *dixit Euripides* τριταῖαν, *ut* τὴν πρότεραν *dicebant et* πρότεραιαν. Polydorus in Hecuba, V. 32. Τριταῖον ἤδη φέγγος αἰωρούμενος' *ubi Schol. multa tradens de his numeralibus,* ἐνταῦθα δὲ, τὸ τριταῖον ἀντὶ τοῦ τρίτον λέγεται. *Hic usitato more scripsisset,* τριταῖος ἤδη αἰωρούμενος' *ut nostro loco,* τριταίαν δυσ' ἄστεος· *omissis vocibus* φέγγος *et* ἡμέραν. *Suam nunc conjecturam Cl. Reiskius, opinor, nollet doctis hominibus propositam.*"

Let Reiske's note on the line in the Hippolytus be added: 275. "*Aut* τριταίαν [*legendum.*] *ut V.* 135. *producta media vocali metri necessitate, aut alias solœcum dixit. Non enim de die dicitur* τριταίαν ἡμέραν ἀστὸς ἐστιν ὁ ἄνθρωπος, *sed ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἐς τρίτην, vel* τριταῖα ἤδη ἄστὸς ἐστιν, *in nominativo, et absque* ἡμέραν."

We spare comments. Valckenaer compares the usage of τριταία for τρίτη in Euripides with that of πρότεραία for πρότερα; we shall quote the authority of Thucydides: v. 75. p. 362. Τῇ δὲ προτεραία ἡμέρᾳ, and VII. 51. p. 479. Τῇ μὲν προτεραία. In both places, however, some MSS. give πρότερα. The reader may consult the notes; and Henry Stephens, Thesaur. V. Τριταῖος and V. προτεραιος.

Τριταῖον φέγγος, it may be added, is one of the few passages which the writer of that dull tragedy, *Christus Patiens*, (attributed to Gregory Nazianzen,) has borrowed from the *Hecuba*.

41. Πρόσφαγμα] This word is compounded of πρὸ and σφάγμα, not of πρός and σφ.—as πρόθυμα is said, and not πρόσθυμα. Yet here, and in v. 269, [Diatribe, p. 17.] Mr. W. wishes to spell this word with a double *sigma*: Προσσφαγμα. He has also published προσσφαλμαλων, in the Alcestis, 857. This is an improper addition. Markland gives it with a single Σ in the second Iphigenia 243. and 258. and Henry Stephens says: "Προσφάζω

"Προσφάζω—unde προσφαγμα, ατος, τὸ, *quod ex Euripide affertur pro Hostia, Victimâ: σφάγιον. Porson tamen significat id, quod jugulationi pecudis præmittitur sacrificium, ut idem sit cum προθυμα. Thesaur.* III. 1159."

Mr. Porson's conjecture of χέρας λαχεῖν, in this verse, for λαβεῖν, is properly termed *ingeniosum* by Mr. Wakefield.

53. ——περᾶ γὰρ ἦδ' ἀπὸ σκηνῆς πόδα
Ἀγαμέμνονος.—

The old reading is ὑπὸ σκ. Mr. P. has published ἀπὸ, and says 'ἀπὸ *pro* ὑπὸ *emendavit Kingius.*' Mr. W. observes: '*Equidem verum censeam* ὑπερ, *i. e.* super limen *tentorii transit. Hæ voculæ ad Ver.* 66. *scribis commutatæ sunt.*'

Reiske also proposes ἀπὸ for ὑπὸ, but mentions not King's name. Ὑπὲρ appears to be the true reading; and we were rather surprised at not finding it in Mr. P.'s text. Brunck and Beck had both changed the ὑπὸ of Aldus into the conjectured ἀπὸ, and there was equal authority for the admission of ὑπερ; which, as might have been stated by Mr. W. is to be found in the notes of Musgrave: 13. ὑπὸ σκ.] '*Legendum, ni fallor,* πρὸ σκηνῆς. *Sic* πρὸ δομων, v. 59.——*Nisi malis* ὑπ ρ σκηνην, extra tentorium, *ut* ὑπερ τέραμνα, Orest. 1377.'—The authors of the *Bibliotheca Critica* appear to prefer the former: πρὸ σκηνῆς.

Mr. W. proceeds: 'περαι ποδα *monstrum puto*—*Rescripserim*: —Ποδὶ—*quasi* sonus *Hecubæ incedentis auribus accideret. Noster, Phœn.* 100,

Κεδρου παλαιαν κλιμακ' ΕΚΠΕΡΑ ΠΟΔΙ.'

We think that περᾶ πόδα is right; and that the alteration into ποδὶ obscures the passage, and is not to be defended by ἐκπέρα κλίμακα ποδὶ, where the verb is followed by an accusative joined to the dative. All doubt will be removed by transcribing a part of Mr. Porson's note on the Orestes, 1427.

'*Verba, quæ motum significant, rectè accusativum adsciscunt instrumenti aut membri, quod præcipuè adhibetur. Sic* κᾶ πόδ' ἰπάξας, *Hec.* 1062, *ubi* πόδα *multo facilius quàm* ποδί. *Ibid.* 53. περᾶ ποδα. Βαίνω *apud Atticos neutrale est verbum;* βάινειν *tamen* πόδα *dixit Euripides, Electr.* 94. 1182. *Imo Aristophanes Eccles.* 161. Ἐκκλησιάσουσ' οὐκ ἂν προβάίνειν τὸν πόδα Τον ἄτερον, ἢ μὴ ταῦτ' ἀκριβωθήσεται. *Plut.* 1475. [*in Oreste scil.*] Μακρὸν δ' ἀφύλαν προβάίς. *Phœn.* 1450. προβὰς δὲ κῶλον δεξιόν. *Sophocles apud Photium* * *MS. in notâ ad Hesych.* V. Ὄχος Ἀχιλλέως, *Suidas*, V. Ὄχημα· Ὄχοις Ἀχιλλείοισιν ἐμβεβὼς πόδα.'

It may be added that Henry Stephens says in his Thesaur. III. 238. "*Ad* περάω *significans simpliciter transfero, pertinet*

* A quotation from PHOTIUS!—Can we forbear to express our ardent wishes that this valuable and eagerly expected Lexicon may soon appear! We feel true delight at the sight and perusal of these Greek plays:—but let not the Patriarch of Constantinople be forgotten.

quod

quod ex Euripide affertur, πυρᾶ ὑπὸ σκηνῆς πόδα, pro: E tentorio profert pedem."—The reader will find in Lucian, if the search be *tanti*, προελθεῖν πόδα, and προβάινειν πόδα.

55. ἐκ τυραννικῶν δόμων.] Mr. W. hesitates in deciding whether the editors and interpreters understood this usage of EK, and refers to the explanations in his *Silva Critica* IV. which Mr. P. neglected. Whence the doubt springs, he has not informed us. The translation gives: *ex regiis ædibus.* The Latins use EX in phrases similar to those in which the Greeks employ EK. The reader may consult Donatus on the Andria of Terence, I. 1. 10.

68—74. As Aristophanes calls: δύσπνον ὄνειρον—μελαίνης Νυκὸς παῖδα, Mr. P. wishes the two clauses, Ὦ ποντία χθών, and Ὦ σεμνὴ νύξ, to change places. Mr. W. would place V. 71. after V. 68. and explains Σέλαα from Hesychius by Αὐγή. *'Lux, splendor solis.—O! Dies, O! Nox.—Unde, ut id obiter notem, conficitur planè, ac sepelibilis evadit, V. D. crassior suspicio de clausularum, ω ποντια χθων, ω σεμνια Νυξ, transpositione.*" G. W.

If any change be necessary, the alteration of Mr. P. is assuredly more simple than that of Mr. W. The reference to the *Ranæ* proves, indeed, what has frequently struck us in the perusal of the Professor's notes, that he is as familiarly acquainted with Aristophanes as he is with the tragedies.—Why, because Σέλαα sometimes has the signification of Αὐγή, Σέλαα Διὸς must be translated *splendor solis, Dies*, is not clear. The text seems to require no change: τὴν γὰρ μελανόπλαυγον ὀνείρων μήτερα, are the words of Eustathius, in Iliad, B. p. 131. Ed. Bas. These are nearly repeated in Od. Γ. 713. and Turnebus has observed: *Veteres somnia e terra nasci credidérunt, et ab inferis, manibusque mitti. Itaque Terra ab Euripide μελανοπλαύγου μήτηρ ὀνείρων, in Hecuba. Adversar.* XXVIII. c. 46. p. 631. *

In V. 69. Mr. W. proposes:

Τί πεῖ' ΑΡ' αἴρομαι συννύχος ὀθλίω,

instead of Τί πόθ' αἴρομαι, which Mr. Porson gives from the Harleian MS.—Aldus has ἄιρομ', and the rest ἀίσσομαι. In an edition of the Hecuba by *Morellus*, Paris, 1612 †, in 4to., which Mr. P. does not appear to have seen, the lection is also ἄιρομαι.—Mr. W.'s insertion of ΑΡ' may be defended: Soph. *Aj.* 905. Τίνος ποτ' ἀρ' ἵκραξε χειρὶ δύσμορος; Arist. *Vesp.* 143. ΤΙ' ΠΟΤ' ΑΡ' ἢ καπνὸ ψοφῶ; Τίς ἄρα is also in Eur. *Hipp.* 828. where Mr. Egerton has admitted into his text the repudiated correction of Musgrave, without acknowlegement.

* Neither of these passages has escaped Mr. Porson's researches.

† We give this date from Harwood, as our copy has lost the title.

Let

Let this passage, and the proposed alterations, be left to Mr. Porson; who, when he arrives at it, will probably remove all dispute.

It must be recollected, however, that, though this insertion of ΑΡ' *may* be allowed, it is by no means necessary; as there are other *Paræmiaci*, or anapestics of fourteen lines in this system, which ceases to be regular after V. 67.

Instead of ἄγκυρά τ' ἐμῶν, Mr. Porson publishes, after Reiske,

Ὃς μόνος οἴκων ἄγκυρ' ἄτ' ἐμῶν
Τὴν χιονώδη Θρῄκην κλέχει,

which Mr. Wakefield chuses to render thus: '*Qui solus ut est meæ domûs ancora, sic, ut ancora tenet Thraciam*;' and boldly corrects: Ὃς ΜΕΝΟΣ οικων ΑΓΚΥΡΑ τ' εμων. In the Attic Poets, we recollect no instance of such a junction as μόνος οἴκων. The position of τ' for τε, after ἄγκυρα, inclines us to join with the Professor, in judging Reiske's emendation to be true.

The following passage of Suidas, omitted by the editors of Hecuba, had almost escaped our recollection: Χαλάσω τὴν ἱερὰν ἄγκυραν. Ἄγκυρα, μεταφορικῶς ἀπὸ τῶν νηῶν, ἡ ἀσφάλεια, ὡς Σοφοκλῆς ἐν Φαίδρᾳ καὶ Εὐριπίδης ἐν Ἑκάβῃ. Hesychius, V. Ἀγκυραι, refers to the place in Sophocles, and the Sangerm. Grammarian preserves the verse: Αλλ' ἐισὶ μητρὶ παῖδες ἄγκυραι βίου. In Brunck's *Lexic. Sophocl.* p. 47. who has not mentioned Suidas. The line before us is the one intended by Suidas in the Hecuba.

100. Ἑκάβη, σπουδῇ πρός σ' ἐλιάσθην,
Τὰς δισπροσύνους σκηνὰς προλιποῦσ'—

G. W.—'VV. DD. *vere καμηλοτόλαι olidissimum mendum — concoquere quiverunt.—Sat scio, neque juventas studiosa, neque præceptores studiosæ juventutis, phrasem bellulam, προς σ' ελιασθην, nobis sunt declaraturi. Rescribendum scilicet:*

Εκαβη, σπουδῃ προς σ' ΕΒΙΑΣΘΗΝ,

Interpretis officio fungatur Orest. 456. *ed Beck.*'

The words are (for Mr. W. has not given them): Γέρονθι δῶρ' ἀμιλλαῖαι ποδί *. V. 450. Ed. Porsoni; which may, indeed, explain what meaning Mr. W. wishes to affix to ἐλιάσθην, but cannot be considered as a defence of the change.

It is to be lamented that Mr. W. did not assign his reasons for wishing the alteration of προς σ' ἐλιάσθην. Λιάζω is derived from Λίαν, as the Etymologist observes, p. 27. 1. and p. 620, 1.; and not from Ἀλίζω, *per transpositionem* †. It signifies

* So the Latins use the verb *contendere*.

† This is not merely the opinion of the Schol. on Eur. Hec. 100. but also of the Etymologist, V. Ἀλίασθαι, and V. Λιασθῆι.

agite,

agito, jacto, turbo:—we transcribe from H. Stephens;—and in the passive form, *Separo me, Declino, Devito*; vel etiam ABSCEDO, SECEDO. In Homer, it is joined with Δεῦρο, Ἐξ, Εἰς, Ἀμφὶ, and ΠΡΟΣ, with which last preposition it is used by Euripides.

Ἐλιάσθην is explained by the Scholiast on the passage Προσέφυγον, ἦλθον. Homer. Il. X. 12. has Σὺ δὲ δεῦρο λιάσθης,—*Tu vero huc divertisti*,—CLARK, *Tu autem huc cucurristi*. DAMM. *Lexic. Pindar.* Ἐξέφυγες, ἐξέκλινας, ἢ ἐπλανήθης. SCHOLIASTES. Eustathius, indeed, says, (p. 1254. 35. Ed. Rom. 1349. 39.) Ἐλιπτόμαι δὲ καὶ τὸ λιασθῆναι, οὐκ ἐπὶ τοῦ φυγεῖν συνήθως, ἀλλὰ παρεκκλῖναι. Λέγει γάρ· Σὺ δὲ δεῦρο λιάσθης, ηγουν ἐξέφυγες τῆς εὐθείας ὁδοῦ, πλαγίασας·——Again, p. 1294. 22. Ὥστε οὐκ ἀεὶ λιάζεσθαι τὸ ἐκφεύγειν.— *

This verse of the Hecuba is quoted by H. Stephens in his index, V. Λιαζω, without suspicion of error; and Λιάζομαι, *discedo*, is frequently used by Apoll. Rhodius, as in III. 1164.

Ἐν χώρῃ, ὅθι τούς γε καὶ ΠΡΟΛΙΠΩΝ ἘΛΙΑΣΘΗ.

Let us now examine the proposed correction; than which *nihil elegantius, nihil efficacius*, says its author: ΕΒΙΑΣΘΗΝ, for ΕΛΙΑΣΘΗΝ. The change of Λ into Β is, indeed, slight: but what is the meaning of the word? that is to be collected from G.W.'s citations, which are from Arrian, Dionysius Halicarn. and Lucian; three *prose* writers, who lived long after the age of Euripides; and who ought not to be considered, alone, as sufficient authority for the defence of an emendation in a Greek tragedy, or comedy.

As the force of the original word Λίαν, *omnino, nimirum, valde*, has an influence in the meaning of the derivative Λιάζω, *Moveo celeriter et valdè*, and Λιάζομαι, *Amoveo me celeriter et omnino* †, so Βιαζω, and Βιάζομαι, the middle, *vi urgeo*, and Βιαζομαι, the passive, *vi urgeor*, always partake of the signification of BIA, from which they are descended. Mr. Wakefield's first citation is from Arrian *De Venat.* XVII. where he is speaking of Hares: ἐς τὰ πεδία ΒΙΑΖΟΝΤΑΙ, ἐρίζοντες πρὸς τὰς κύνας. VI SUMMA *per camporum planitiem cursum* INTENDUNT, *contendentes cum canibus*. Blancard.—The second is from Dionysius Halic. Antiq. Rom. II. 66. Vol. I. p. 122. During a fire in the Temple of Vesta, Lucius Cecilius, in order to save what had been left by the Priestesses, παρεκινδύνευσεν ἐις τὰ καιόμενα ΒΙΑΣΑΣΘΑΙ, *summo cum periculo est ausus in ardens penetrale* IRRUMPERE. Hudson. In these two passages, as in the third from Lucian, the verb in the *present middle* cannot be allowed as a defence of the admission of the *aorist* passive,

* Conf. Suidas, et Hesychius. † From Damm's Lexicon.

which

which we do not recollect in the Greek plays. Suidas, indeed, says: Ἐβιάζοντο, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν πασχόντων Θουκυδίδης. Βιάζομαι, in a passive sense, is not unusual in Thucydides; from whom also the following words may be transcribed: ὀφείλων γὰρ ἤδη ὁ ἐναντίος μὲν ἀνλαμώνεσθαι, ὡς βιασθεὶς——*quasi vim passus fuerit*—DUKER. IV. 19. p. 250. 17.

If these remarks be just, how can ἐβιάσθην be put into the mouth of the chorus in the Hecuba, who come, from the tents of their Grecian masters, to inform their former queen what was the intended fate of Polyxena her daughter? They came in haste,—σπουδῇ ἐλιάσθην——but not by compulsion.—Ἐβιάσθην must mean, *I have been forced*; which is totally contrary to the sense of the context; nor would even the middle aorist, ἐβιασάμην, *I have forced myself*, or *I have forced my way*, be admissible.—This correction we reject; though we are aware that we may incur the censure of possessing no true Greek taste; for thus Mr. W. concludes his note on this place. '*Sed enim, nobis tacentibus, emendationem statim verissimam agnoscent genuino literarum Græcarum gustui contacti.*' Diatribe, p. 12.

112. Ὅισθ' ὅτε χρυσέοις ἐφάμαν ξὺν ὅπλοις——

Mr. P. restores Ὅτε from Aldus and the MSS. instead of ὅτι, the conjecture of Canter, which Musgrave commends, and which Brunck, Ammon, and Beck have inserted in their texts: '*Plus enim est*, observes the Professor, *si quis simul et rem ipsam, et rei tempus, quàm si rem solam memorat.*'

Our opinion coincides with that of Mr. W. who has bestowed his approbation on this restoration, but adds: '*V. D.* (as he generally terms the editor) *rationes suas minus accurate videtur exposuisse. Sic expanitas oportuit: plus est, si quis* tempus rei, *quam* rem ipsam *memoret, quia in* tempore *comprehenditur necessaria* res ipsa, *sed in* re *non ita vicissim* tempus.'

Mr. P. then subjoins, Οἶσθα *hic idem est quod* μέμνησαι, which he proves by another passage from the *Hecuba*, from Sophocles, *Aj.* 1273—1283, Aristophanes *Av.* 1054. *Vesp.* 354-5 in which last, Ὅτ', he mentions, stands for Ὅτε, and not for Ὅτι, of which the final *Iota* is never elided by the comic writers:—An excellent canon, which Brunck had established in his notes on the *Ran.* 922. *Lysistr.* 611, and on other passages of Aristophanes.—It was probably unknown to Dawes, who, in his *Miscellan. Critica*, p. 239, or p. 237. *Edit.* Burgess. reads in the *Rana* of Aristophanes, 892, Οἶθ' ἡ ποίνας,—for Ὅτι ἡ ποίνας—, where the *Codex Ravenn.* of Invernizius gives rightly: Ὅτε ἡ ποίνας——, as it is tacitly quoted by Stanley, in his notes on the life of Eschylus, p. 707.

154.

154. —— φοινισσομένας
Αἱμάλλι παρθένων ἐκ χρυσοφόρου
Δειρᾶς καθαρῷ μηλοσαυγεῖ.

R. P. '*Mos erat apud veteres virginibus plurimum auri gestare.*' Mr. P. then cites Homer. *Il.* Β'. 872. Aristoph. *Av.* 670.—The instances merely prove, as the note asserts, that virgins used to wear gold, but do not refer directly to the decorations of the neck. Mr. W. complains of this omission, and exclaims: '*Nuge! speciale aliquid desideramus; quale unicum Virgilii lepidulis sufficiat.* Æn. VII. 351.——*fit* tortile COLLO Aurum *ingens coluber.*'

A most infelicitous example! Alecto throws one of the serpents from her head into the bosom of Amata:

"*Ille, inter vestis et levia pectora lapsus,*
Volvitur adtactu nullo, fallitque furentem,
Vipeream inspirans animam; fit tortile collo
Aurum ingens coluber, fit longæ tænia vittæ,
Innectitque comas, et membris lubricus errat."

We have transcribed the whole passage; and we cannot perceive in it any proof that *the necks of virgins* were antiently ornamented with gold.—The snake, indeed, is changed into a golden twist for the neck of *Amata*: but AMATA was not a VIRGIN. She was the WIFE of Latinus, and the MOTHER of Lavinia.

Mr. W. then remarks that Polyxena could not easily procure *multum auri*; and he thinks, '*elegans ingenium Poetæ de naturali quodam decore, non adscito, cogitaturum fuisse in hoc loco.*' He proposes to read ἐκ ΧΡΥΣΟΦΟΒΟΥ δειρᾶς, instead of χρυσοφόρου. The epithet Χρυσοφορος appears to be used in this place, in consequence of the custom among the antients of decorating victims, whether human or animal, before they were sacrificed. Thus in the *Heraclidæ*, Iolaus says to Macaria, who had offered her life in consequence of the decree of the Oracle:

569. Καὶμὲ τοῦ' αἰσχρὸν, μή σε κοσμήσας καλῶς.

So in the *Supplices*, Iphis questions his daughter Evadne, who had resolved on dying, self-devoted, on the funeral pile of her husband Capaneus:

1057. Σκευῇ δὲ τῇδε τῶν χαίρειν κοσμεῖς θέμας;

The curious reader may consult Elian *Var. Hist.* I. XVI. and his commentators, with the authors to whom they refer, on the *Tunica* and *Pallium* which Apollodorus brought to Socrates before he drank the poison. Dorville *in Charit.* p. 68. may be added, who is cited by Markland on the verse in the Supplices. From these it will appear that, whether the person was condemned to die, or stood forth as a voluntary victim, the custom was the same with regard to external decorations.

As

As to the means of procuring ornaments, (*multum auri*, Diatribe 13.) it is not certain how far Polyxena, who was intended for a religious ceremony, might have been stripped; and Hecuba herself afterward proposes to collect, from the captives, whatever they might have been able to conceal from their new masters, 617—622, in order to adorn the dead body of her daughter Polyxena. On this very passage, Mr. W. gives a note, *Diatribe*, p. 27.

It has been stated that Mr. W. proposes to change ΧΡΥΣΟΦΟΡΟΥ into ΧΡΥΣΟΦΟΒΟΥ. He points out this great similitude, and thus defends the correction:

'*Noster, Phœn.* 198.

ω ποτνια, ΧΡΥΣΕΟΒΟΣΤΡΥΧΕ,
ω Διος ερος, Αρτεμι.

Eadem medicina Clearcho facienda est apud Athenæum, xiii. 2. p. 564. ουτε παιδος αρρενος, ουτε παρθενων των χρυσοφορων, ουτε γυναικων βαθυκολπων, καλον το προσωπον. *Lege*, παρθενων ΧΡΥΣΟΦΟΒΩΝ' *ut mox in eâdem paginâ*: Ω καλλιπροσωπε ΧΡΥΣΕΟΒΟΣΤΡΥΧΕ Γαλατεια. *Numeros locorum non attingo; quum me longe peritiorem artificem*, PORSONUM *dico, postulent.*'

This emendation is liable to objections. 1st, There is no such word as χρυσοφοβος.—2dly, If there were such a compound, it would signify, *qui aurum timet*, as Υδροφοβος means, *Qui aquam timet*: there are no similar compounds of Φοβη, *Coma*.—3dly, If it were sufficiently authorized, and if it could signify *Golden-haired*, ought it to be applied to a mortal? The Heroes and Heroines of Antiquity are celebrated by the Poets for their Ξανθοι πλοκαμοι, but not for χρυσεοι. To speak of Euripides alone: the adjective Ξανθος, ξανθη, ξανθον, is joined to the substantives, Βοστρυχος, Ἐθειρα, Καρα, Κεφαλη, Κομη, Κρατ, Πλοκομος, or Χαιτη, according to their respective genders, in his descriptions of HIPPOLYTUS in Hipp. 1359.—LYCUS. Herc. Fur. 232.—MENELAUS * Orest. 1558. Iph. A. 175.—ORESTES. Iph. Taur. 52. Electr. 518.—PARTHENOPÆUS. Phœn. 1194. So also with regard to females: CASSANDRA. Iph. A. 763.—CLYTEMNESTRA. Electr. 1078.—ELECTRA. Electr. 523. GLAUCE. Med. 985.—HELENA. Helen 1244.—IPHIGENIA. Iph. A. 685. 1376. Iph. T. 173.—PHÆDRA. Hipp. 133. 222.——To these may be added the SON of Hercules, Herc. Fur. 995, and the CHILDREN of Medea and Jason, Med. 1150. †

* Here Menelaus is called ξανθος, without the addition of another substantive; as Harmonia is ξανθη, in Medea, 859.

† A few passages are omitted, which are not to the present purpose; as, Cycl. 499. Troad. 229. Herc. Fur. 362.

Similar

Similar forms of expression might readily be produced from the other tragic writers: but we have intentionally confined ourselves to Euripides. From whom, however, can instances, in which mortals are described with *golden hair*, be produced? Not so the son of Mnesarchus:—he affixes, indeed, the epithet ξανθὴ to Harmonia, in *Med.* 859, and ξανθὸς to Bacchus, in *Cycl.* 75, and in *Bacch.* 235.—*Golden Hair*, however, with him, (as it should be,) is solely the attribute of Divinity!

Creusa thus addresses Apollo, *Ion.* 903.

——Ὦ Λατοῦς παῖ,
* * * *
Ἦλθές μοι χρυσῷ χαίταν
Μαιμαίρων——

So Apollo is styled Χρυσοκόμας, in the Suppl. 978. Iphig. Taur. 1244. Troad. 255.

The same epithet is also applied to Ἔρως, in *Iph. Aul.* 548.

Ὄθι δὴ
Δίδυμ' Ἔρως ὁ χρυσοκόμας
Τὰ' ἐνδεύεται χαρίτων.

We quote from Musgrave.

Diana is also thus invoked, in the very passage which Mr. W. has cited, *Diatr.* 141.—Eurip. *Phœniss.* 200.

Μὴ πόλει, μὴ πόλει τάνδ'
Ὦ πότνια, χρυσεοδόσ[φ]υχε,
Ὦ Διὸς ἔρνος, Ἄρτεμι,
Δουλοσύναν τλάσην.

Hippolytus likewise thus calls on his tutelary divinity: *Hipp.* 82.

Ἀλλ', ὦ φίλη δέσποινα, χρυσέας κόμης
Ἀναθήματ' δέξαι——

This passage brings to our recollection a corrupt verse in the Electra of Euripides; in which, instead of ἀναθήματα, which closes the iambic with an obtrusive anapest * in the fifth place, we venture to propose, (V. 886.)

——Ὀρέστα, τῆς ὑπ' Ἰλίῳ μάχης,
Δέξαι κόμης σ[φ]ὸς βοστρυχὼν ΑΓΑΛΜΑΤΑ.

Ἀναθήματα seems to have been derived from the cited place of Hippolytus. Ἀγάλματα is used in two verses of this play, immediately preceding 876 and 878, in which these very ornaments are mentioned.

The word Ἄγαλμα has been illustrated, with his usual accuracy, by the learned editor of Timæus; who is no longer in a

* Consult Mr. Porson's Preface to his Hecuba, p. vii.

state to enjoy the praises, nor to repel the censures, of his contemporaries.—The intelligence of his death reached us very lately.—This melancholy event has carried off the last of the school of Hemsterhusius! The limits of a Review are by no means calculated to admit a description of his virtues as a man, nor of his learning as a scholar. Half a century has nearly elapsed since the publication of his first *Epistola Critica* on Homer's Hymns, and on Hesiod, addressed to his eminent friend, Ludovic Caspar Valckenaer. This long period has scarcely produced any critic who has equalled him in elegance of taste, in depth of research, or in soundness of erudition; and during all future ages, if the writers of observations and the editors of antient authors be desirous of arriving at the style of a genuine commentator, pure in his Latinity, clear in his expressions, concise in his phraseology, temperate in his censures, calm in his decisions, sound in his judgment, acute in his conjectures, secure in his quotations, disdainful of imaginary witticisms, and superior to petty cavils, they will "devote their days and nights" to those perfect models of critical composition, the works of DAVID RUHNKENIUS.

Nos tecta fovebimus ossa
Volis, et fronde frequenti;
Titulumque et frigida saxa
Liquido spargemus odore."

To proceed. In the fourth place, if there were such a compound in existence, and if it could signify *golden-haired*, and if it could be applied to mere mortal woman, would Euripides have used it as an epithet for the neck of Polyxena? It would surely rather have raised disgust than compassion, if he had described this ill-fated daughter of monarchy as having a neck covered with a natural tegument of golden hair? The compounds χρυσεοβόστρυχος and χρυσοκόμας, are never admitted as epithets of Δημήτηρ. There is a passage in Theocritus, indeed, in which ἔυθριξ δειρὴ occurs: but then the poet is speaking of the well-feathered neck of Chanticleer. It is at the close of the Epithalamium of Helen, Idyll. ιη, 36.

Νείμεθα κάμμες ἐς ἔρθρον, ἐπεὶ κα πρᾶτος ἀοιδὸς
Ἐξ ευνᾶς κελαδήσῃ ἀνασχὼν ἔυθριχα δειρᾶν.

as Ovid says, Metam. XIII.

PLUMA TEGIT VOLUCRES: *ovibus sua lana decori est.*

Euripides, indeed, never distinguishes the neck of youthful females by this epithet, but he applies it with great propriety to the beard of Hercules:

Ἄφρον παλαίσας εὐτρίχου γενειάδος. Herc. Fur. 936.

Ἔυθριξ

Εὐθριξ may be added from this passage to Beck's Index to Euripides, in which it is omitted.

Now to examine the authorities which Mr. Wakefield has called forth in defence of ΧΡΥΣΟΦΟΒΟΣ.

The first is from the *Phœniss.* of Euripides, 200. and has been already produced. In it, Ἄρτεμις is called χρυσοβόλου χόρος: but, as *Diana* is a *goddess*, and as the compound epithet *golden-haired* is applied to her, and not to the neck of a mortal, we conceive that it can have no weight on the present occasion.

The second is said to be from Clearchus: but Clearchus the poet was a comic writer. The passage is from Lycophronides; and if Mr. Porson had recollected it, he would probably have cited it as a confirmation of the propriety of his poet's παρθένον ἐκ χρυσοφόρου δειρῆς. It is quoted, indeed, by Clearchus the Peripatetic, a pupil of Aristotle, in the first book of his *Erotics*; a *prose* work, which is frequently mentioned by *Athenæus*. The whole passage, with the metres properly digested, should stand thus:

Πρὸς ἀλήθειαν γάρ, καθάπερ φησὶ ΚΛΕΑΡΧΟΣ, ἐν τῷ πρώτῳ τῶν Ἐρωτικῶν, Λυκοφρονίδην εἰρηκέναι φησίν·

1. Οὔτε παιδὸς ἄρρενος, οὔτε παρθένων.
2. Τῶν χρυσοφόρων, οὐδὲ γυναικῶν βαθυκόλπων.
3. Καλὸν τὸ πρόσωπον· ἀλλὰ κόσμιον πεφύκει.
4. Ἡ γὰρ Ἀιδὼς ἄνθος ἐπισπείρει.

1. Metrum *Epichoriambicum trim. acatal.*
2. *Ionicum à majore tetram. Sotadic.*
3. *Idem.*
4. *Epichoriam. trimetrum brachycat.*

Lycophronides, as far as we recollect, is quoted only in one other place by *Athenæus*, in which the same liberties with respect to metrical arrangement are observable:

1. Τοῦ' ἀναλίθημί σοὶ Ῥόδον,
2. Καλὸν Φόρημα·
3. Καὶ πέδιλα, καὶ κυνέην;
4. Καὶ τὴν θηροφόνον λογχίδ', ἐπεὶ μοι νόος ἀλλὴ κέχυλαι·
5. Ἐπὶ τὰν Χάρισι φίλαν τέ παῖδα καὶ καλάν.

1. Metrum *iamb. dim. acat.*
2. *Iamb. parthem. In Athenæo legitur* νοήμα.
3. *Choriamb. dim. acat.*
4. *Antispasticum pentam. brachyc. ubi Editt. Ald. et Basil. exhibent* ἄλλο *pro* αλλὴ.
5. *Iamb. trim. acatal. addidimus* τε. *Ista vocula omissa, metrum fit Epionicum a minore trim. acat. In* prima *tede Mesomacros, secunda longa soluta; et in* tertia *iamb. syzyg.*

Another mode of division may be proposed. It is very difficult to decide which is the more eligible way of measuring

the fragments of Nomes, and Dithyrambic Odes, or unfettered Inscriptions.

Mr. W.'s third instance is from the Cyclops of Philoxenus, and may be thus arranged:

1. Ὦ καλλιπρόσωπε,
2. Χρυσεοδόρυχε Γαλάτεια,
3. Χαριλόφωνε, κάλλος Ἐρώτων.

1. *Ionic. a maj. dimetr. brachycat.*
2. *Choriamb. dimetr. hypercat. In secunda sede, prima longa soluta.*
3. *Choriamb. dimetr. hypercat. In prima sede, prima longa soluta.*

Our opinion of Philoxenus, it must be added, perfectly agrees with that of the learned and elegant translator of Aristotle's Poetics, Mr. Twining *. In p. 178 of his Notes, he observes that the poem of Philoxenus, intended by Aristotle, in chapter vii. "must clearly have been either a Nome, or a Dithyrambic poem; most probably the latter. Philoxenus is recorded as a Dithyrambic poet: it is by no means *certain*, that the *Cyclops* of Philoxenus mentioned by Athenæus, Ælian, and others, is the piece here alluded to: and if it were, which, undoubtedly, appears rather probable, I know of no sufficient proof that it was a *drama*, as it has been repeatedly called. If Ælian is to be regarded, it certainly was not; for he calls it μελος—a term appropriated to Lyric poetry.—Τὸν Κυκλωπα εἰργασαῖο, των ἑαυτοῦ ΜΕΛΩΝ το καλλιστον."

The Cyclops was certainly not a play. In the *Excerpta* of Grotius, two verses are inserted, which are assigned to the comedy of the Cyclops by Philoxenus. The first of these:

Ἀπώλεσας τὸν οἶνον ἐπιχέας ὕδωρ,

is quoted by Athenæus, VIII. p. 362. A.—by Zenobius, II. 16. and by Diogenianus, II. 32. without mentioning the name of the author; though the two latter state, that these are the words of Polypheme to Ulysses, ἐν Κύκλωπος or Κύκλωπι δράματι. This drama, however, was not the Cyclops of Philoxenus; for Suidas, in his note on this proverbial iambic, expressly tells us that it is a verse ἐξ Ἀριστίου Κύκλωπος, on the authority of Chameleon, in his work *De Satyris* †.

The other fragment is taken from Zenobius, V. 45. who calls this Cyclops Δρᾶμα, and from Diogenianus, VII. 19. Ὅτιῳ μ' ὁ Δαίμων τέρατι συγκαλεῖρξεν; they are the words of Ulysses, when he was shut into the cavern of Polypheme. In order to render it an iambic verse, Grotius reads συγκα-

* See Rev. N. S. vol. iv. p. 383.—vii. p. 121.—xi. p. 241.

† *Conf. etiam Suidas*, V. Ἀριστίου κύκλωψ.

συγκέκλει-

θείρξαλο, as does Gatakerus, Advers. Miscell. Posth. x. p. 522. E. The active form is right; as Euripides, *Bacch.* 509.

Χώρει· καθείρξαι' αὐλὸν ἱππικαῖς πέλας.
Φάτναισιν.——

Again, 618.

Πρὸς φάτνας δὲ ταῦρον εὑρών, ὃν καθεῖρξ' ἡμᾶς ἄγων.

Hemsterhusius was aware that the middle voice was not to be admitted, but he wished the line to be made a *Trimeter*. He therefore proposes συγκαθεῖρξεν ἄν; in his Notes on Xenophon's *Ephesiaca*, Miscell. Obser. *Tom.* VI. p. 303. He should have explained the use of this additional particle, and should have proved the necessity of rendering it an acatalectic, instead of a catalectic verse. Valckenaer, indeed, justly observes "συγκαθείρξαλο *Græcis, quibus nostra debemus monumenta, non—in usu fuisse.*" Yet he would change the word into συγκαλῶνσιν, in order, it should seem, to complete the verse. Adnot. in Eur. Hippol. V. 1389. p. 314. The fragments of Philoxenus, which still remain, undoubtedly bear not the traces of the usual dramatic measures. The Cyclops was in dialogue, as were the Mimes of Sophron; which, though of a dramatic cast, were not *plays*, or *Fabulæ*.—There is a verse, indeed, which much resembles the line from Philoxenus:

Οἰῳ μ' ὁ Δαίμων θηρίῳ ξυνφκισεν,

which is said to be from the Andromeda of Euripides, by Casaubon, Animad. in Athen. III. 23. p. 203.—by Gataker, A. M. P. 522.—by Barnes, in his *Addend.*—by Valcken. in Hipp. Eur. 1389.—and by Beck in his *Addend. ad Musgr. fragmenta*. We know not, however, in what antient writer it is quoted, nor on what authority it is assigned to the Andromeda of Euripides. It is omitted by Musgrave.

[*To be continued.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For JANUARY, 1799.

AMERICA.

Art. 14. *A short Account of the principal Proceedings of Congress*, in the late Session, and a Sketch of the State of Affairs between the United States and France, in July 1798. In a Letter from Robert Goodloe Harper, Esq. of South Carolina, to one of his Constituents. 8vo. 1s. Philadelphia printed; London reprinted for Wright.

THE French are certainly not to be ranked among the very few who make a moderate and just use of power. Their continued aggressions have at length determined the United States to put themselves

in a condition of defence against attack and to repel insult. In this letter, Mr. Harper informs his constituents of the preparations on which Congress had resolved, and gives a short account of the annual revenue and expenditure. Great moderation is shewn in the resolutions of Congress; who, notwithstanding the depredations committed on their trade by the French, have only, for the present, authorised their ships to capture, and bring in for condemnation, French *armed* vessels. Unarmed ships are not to be molested. Mr. H. warmly recommends a vigorous resistance on the part of America; and this, he doubts not, will soon induce the all-grasping French to keep their proper distance.

HISTORY.

Art. 15. *A new and improved History of England* from the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the End of the Thirty-seventh Year of George III. By Charles Allen, A. M. Embellished with Four Copper-Plates, and a Chronological Chart of the Revolutions in Great Britain. Concluding with a short but comprehensive historical View of Europe, from the Abolition of the Monarchical Form of Government in France; the Military and Naval Operations, with the Conquests and Revolutions in Italy to the Peace of Udina, the Changes and Revolutions in the French Republic, &c. 12mo. 4s. bound. Johnson. 1798.

The knowlege of history is justly considered as a very important part in every system of education, as there is no study which possesses greater efficacy in removing prejudices of every description, nor any which conveys more beneficial instruction. This knowlege is admirably calculated to instil into young minds just and liberal sentiments, and to inspire them with a generous spirit of emulation. The censure and contempt with which history marks the characters of the vicious and the mean, and the praises which it bestows on the virtuous and the noble, will naturally inspire the minds of youth with the love, and lead them to the practice, of what is laudable and great.

In addition to these advantages resulting from a knowlege of *general* history, that of *our own country* holds out benefits peculiar to itself. Independently of the interest which every man feels in the transactions of his ancestors,—an interest which it would be degrading not to feel and to cultivate,—there are few histories more replete with events of importance, or more diversified, than those which form the annals of Britain.

The present abridgment comprises much useful information in a small compass, and is written in a plain and perspicuous style. It has also an advantage which no other History of England on this plan of abbreviation possesses, by giving a summary account of the most recent events;—events, too, which have no parallel in the history of mankind.—On an examination into the contents of the volume, we observe nothing in the opinions of the author that could have a dangerous bias on the minds of young readers; his sentiments appear to be the dictates of good sense, and to be regulated by moderation; and on the whole we conceive the work, to use the author's own expressions,

expressions, to be 'calculated for general use, and particularly adapted to seminaries for the education of either sex.'

Art. 16. *A new and improved Roman History*, from the Foundation of the City of Rome, to its final Dissolution as the Seat of Empire, in the Year of Christ 476, including a Period of about 1228 Years from its Commencement under Romulus. By Charles Allen, A. M. 12mo. 4s. bound. Johnson. 1798.

Commendation similar to that which we have bestowed on the author's History of England, in the preceding article, is equally merited by the present work; for we discover in it a considerable fund of information, conveyed in plain and intelligible language. Mr. Allen has selected his facts with judgment, and has delineated his characters with impartiality and a strict adherence to the best evidences of historic truth. He has also introduced sentiments and remarks which from their propriety, can hardly fail of proving beneficial to the ductile minds of youth.

We have little praise to bestow on the plates designed as ornaments to Mr. Allen's Histories.

EDUCATION, CLASSICS, *&c.*

Art. 17. *Delectus Græcarum Sententiarum, cum Notis tum Grammaticis, tum Philologicis; in usum Tironum accommodatis.* 8vo. 4s. bound. Richardson, &c. 1798.

It was the great benefit derived from Dr. Valpy's Latin *Delectus*, which induced the present author (who, at the close of his Preface, signs himself S. P., Scarning, Norfolk, and whom we understand to be Mr. St. John Priest,) to compile this work. The sentences are chiefly selected from Euripides, Sophocles, Socrates, Ælian, and Xenophon; and the compiler begins by short simple sentences, proceeding to lengthen his examples through sixteen sections; containing in all 40 pages. The division of Sections was adopted, for the purpose of arranging the principles of Grammar and Idiom which were intended to be inculcated. The Greek text is unaltered.

To enable our classical readers to form some judgment of the work, we subjoin the whole of Sect. III. with the Notes corresponding to the first five numbers.

1 Ἀλέξανδρος ἐνίκησε Δαρεῖον.
2 Νέα φρονεῖς ἐκ ἀλγεῖν φιλεῖ.
3 Ἔλεγεν ὁ Πλάτων τὰς ἐλπίδας ἐγρηγόρσων ἀνθρώπων ὀνείρους εἶναι.
4 Λέγουσί τινες λόγοι Πυθικοὶ, τὸν Ἡρακλῆν, τὸν Διὸς καὶ Ἀλκμήνης παῖδα, ἀπὸ γενετᾶς Ἡρακλείδην κεκλῆσθαι.
5 Διονύσιος ἐξ ἀσπαίλων τῶν ἐν Συρακούσαις ἱερῶν ἐσύλησε τὰ χρήματα.
6 Ῥωμαίων αἱ πολλαὶ γυναῖκες καὶ τὰ ὑποδήματα αὐλὰ φορεῖν τοῖς ἀνδράσιν εἰθισμέναι εἰσί.
7 Ἐπισθησεν Ἀθηναῖοι, Σωκράλην περὶ θεὺς μὴ σωφρονεῖν.
8 Βέλτιὸν ἐστι σῶμα ἢ ψυχὴν νοσεῖν.
9 Χάρις βασιῶν ἐπαινεῖ.
10 Ἀνὴρ χρηστὸς χρηστόν ἐ μισεῖ πόλι.
11 Ὅτος πενῶν ἐσπάλαε ἀριστεῖ.
12 Ἀπάντας ἡ παίδευσις ἡμέρους ποιεῖ.

13 Ὁστις λύκου φλεφὰ ζητεῖ.
14 Ἀκμὴ πολλὰ, λάλει δ' ὀλίγα.
15 Ποτηρὸν ἄνδρα μηδέποτε ποιῶ φίλον.
16 Ἐπαινεῖτε τὰς ἀγαθὰς.
17 Μοχθεῖν ἀνάγκη.
18 Τὴν τῶν πολεμῶν φύσιν, καὶ τὰ ῥεῖθρα αὐτῶν ὁρῶμεν.
19 Μᾶλλον ἡδεῖ ἰᾶς ἰῶν λόγων, ἢ ἰᾶς ἰῶν χρημάτων παρακαταθήκας.
20 Ποίει μηδὲν μὴ ὀργῆς.
21 Τοὺς ἀγαθοὺς εὖ ποίει.
22 Ὕπνος πενίαν τὴν κακίσχιστον δαμᾷ.
23 Ἐν θαλάσσῃ ζητεῖς ὕδωρ.
24 Σιγᾶν ἄμεινον ἢ αἰσχρὰ.
25 Μὴ κάμνε; φίλον ἄνδρα ἐνεργετῶν αλλ' ἔλεγχε.

1. Ἀλεξανδρος) s. in Latin *Alexander*. ἐνικησε) v. νικαω. Δαρειον) s. Δαρειος, *Darius*.

2. Νεα) νος adj. see the Rule in Sec. I. N. 28, agrees with φοιλιος) s. ουκ) adv. κ is added to ου *non*, when the next word begins with a vowel having the smooth breathing. ἀλγειν) v. ἀλγεω, infin. after φιλει) v. φιλεω.

3. Πλατων) s. *Plato*. Proper names are used with the article sometimes as if to give them *eminence*. Thus την Ἑλενην, Sec. I. sent. 4. τας Θηβας, Sec. I. sent. 44. and in this sent. ὁ Πλαιδων, &c: Not so Ῥωμη, Sec. I. sent. 3. Ὁμηρον, Sec. I. sent. 5. Ἀλκιβιαδης ibid. Διος, Sec. II. sent. 5. Πτολεμαιος, Sec. II. sent. 9. Ἀλεξανδρος and Δαρειον, sent. 1. of this Sec. &c. ἐλεγεν) see Sec. II. N. 9. and Sec. I. N. 5. τας ἐλπιδας) s. ἐλπις. See Sec. II. R. at the beginning. ἐγρηγοροσιν) part. γρηγορεα, which forms regularly ἐγρηγορα, Perf. Mid. whence the part. ἐγρηγορως, υια, ος, &c. Its substantive is ἀνθρωπων, a gen. understood after ὀπαδος) s. ὀπαδος.

4. λεγουσι) v. λεγω, its nom. is λογοι) s. λογος. τινες) adj. τις. This pronoun has two distinct significations; it is sometimes used as an *interrogative* and signifies, *who*, *what*; and sometimes as a pronoun *indefinite* and signifies, *any*, *some*, *certain*. Here it is a pronoun *indefinite*. It agrees with λογοι. Ἡρακλην) s. Ἡρακλης by Crasis for Ἡρακλεης. This word is declined both as a parisyllabic and an imparisyllabic. For its declension as an imparisyllabic see the Grammar. Here it is declined thus:

Ἡρακλεης, ης
—εϊ, ῃ
—εη, ῃ
—εην, ην
—εῃ, ῃ

See *Hercules* in the Biblioth. Class. παιδα) s. παις, put *in apposition* to Ἡρακλην. Διος) s. see Sec. II. N. 5. Ἀλκμηνης) s. Ἀλκμηνη, *Alcmena*. ἀπο) prep. governs a genitive only, *From* γενεας) s. γενεα, see the Rule in Sec. I. N. 42. Ἡρακλειδην) s. Ἡρακλειδης, *Heraclides*. κεκλησθαι) v. καλεω. This verb makes εσω in the future and κα in the perf.

καλεω—καλεσω—κεκληκα,
by sync.—κεκλημαι.

5. Διονυσιος)

5. Διονυσιος) s. Dionysius; see N. 5. of this Sec. ἐξ) prep. *ἐκ is used before a consonant, ἐξ before a vowel.* It governs a genitive only. *From, out of.* ἁπαντων) adj. ἁπας, agrees with ἱερων) s. ἱερον. των) art. *The article like an adjective* (see Sec. I. Obs. R. 3,) *must have a substantive expressed or understood, with which it agrees in gender, number and case.* The substantive here is ἱερων. *The article is often prefixed to a participle, and must be rendered as if it were the relative* ὁς, ἡ, ὁ, *with the verb* ειμι *before the participle made to agree with the relative, or as if it were the relative* ὁς, ἡ, ὁ, *with the same tense of the verb in the indicative mood as the participle*—thus ὁ λεγων may be rendered as if it were ὁς ἐστι λεγων, *who is speaking*, or as if it were ὁς λεγει, *who speaks. The participle in instances, where a preposition or adverb follows, is often understood*—thus ὁ ἐν τοις ὑρανοις i. e. ὁ ὢν ἐν τοις ὑρανοις the same as ὁς ἐστιν ἐν τοις ὑρανοις: τα ἐξω i. e. τα ὄντα ἐξω, the same as ἁ ἐισω ἐξω, &c. In the present instance ὄντων (see ὤν, ὖσα, ὄν, the imperfect participle) from ειμι is understood before the prep. ἐν, which may be rendered as if it were ἁ ἦσαν ἐν, *which were in.* Συρακυσιαις) s. Συρακυσιαι, it has no singular, in Latin *Syracusæ.* υ becomes *y*, and αι becomes *æ* as before. See *Thebæ* and *Æthiops*, Sec. I. N. 33 and 44. ἰσυλλῃ) v. σύλλαω. τα χρηματα) s. χρημα, acc. after the verb.'

The volume will be found to be an useful *Chrestomathia:* but perhaps it would have been of more general utility, if a literal Latin version had been added to the Greek.

It was once the author's intention to have subjoined a Lexicon, and some notes on the First Iliad of Homer; calculated to shew *the origin and progress of dialects*, the *use of the Greek particles*, the *laws of Greek quantity*, and *similar passages* from Milton and Virgil: these notes are now designed for a separate publication.

POETRY, DRAMATIC, &c.

Art. 18. *Clavidgo*, a Tragedy, in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Goethe. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

We gave some account of Goethe's Iphigenia in Tauris, in vol. xi. N. S. p. 51; and of his Stella, vol. xxvi. p. 579. His Clavigo, or, as the translator calls it, Clavidgo, now solicits attention. The plot is founded on fact, and departs very little from the real history. Beaumarchais, the editor of Voltaire's works, went as here described to Madrid, to fight a duel with a Spaniard who had deserted his sister.—The play is worthy of the German Euripides, and the translation is, in general, unexceptionable.

Art. 19. *Reformed in Time*; a Comic Opera, in Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

Not having seen this little musical drama exhibited, we are unable to judge of the effects of the dialogue when delivered, or of the music of the songs when sung. It seems, however, on mere perusal, not to be devoid of merit in the composition. The fable, indeed, is not quite new, nor are the characters either very original or strongly marked: but the piece is innocent, and of a moral tendency.

There is a variety in the measure of the songs, with a *buffo* humour in some of them, very favourable to dramatic music of the *burletta* cast:

cast: but we must observe that the character of the *soubrette*, Mrs. Handy, (Lady Insight's woman,) is overcharged with assurance, impertinence, and absurdity.

Art. 20. *The Patriot*; a Poem. By a Citizen of the World. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1798.

Patriot, and *Citizen of the World*, are contradictory terms. A patriot is a lover of his own particular country; and a citizen of the world is one who cares as much for one country as for another.

We have not room to insert our remarks on particular defects in this poem, though in the course of examination we had written down more than twenty; exclusively of bad rhymes: such as *worse—use. Death—wrath. Prepare—rear. Began—dawn. Grace—encrease. Eyes—joys. Joy—melody*:—but there are slight defects, such as care and diligence may rectify. We wish not to discourage the attempts of young or anonymous authors in any species of writing, if the seeds of genius be discoverable: but in essays at poetry, if no originality, no ideas, no poetical language, be discoverable, the case is hopeless for the future. It is to be regretted that our worthy citizen of the world wants to be told, publicly, that he is not *afflatus numine*, not gifted with inspiration; and that he has chosen a subject which is above his powers. We observe that the 2d line of each couplet is in want of ideas, and seems left to chance, without any preparation being made for it. Common thoughts expressed in common words will not constitute *the language of the gods*, as the antients called poetry. Many moderns have usurped a place among poets by the mere aid of rhyme: but antient poets, who had no such resource, were expected to possess other requisites than the mechanical art of arranging long and short syllables. A species of inspiration was thought necessary in their ideas and invention, as well as metaphorical expression in their language, to entitle them even to the name of *versifiers*; which modern bards acquire on easier terms.

These remarks are not addressed merely to the author of the *Patriot*, but to poetical Tyros in general; who frequently imagine that, by being able to put into rhyme common thoughts, stale stories, and prosaic language, they shall be dignified with the high title of *poet*.

The smaller pieces, which terminate this publication, seem of a better texture, and merit more lenity than the *Patriot*.

Art. 21. *False and True*; a Play, in Three Acts. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Hay-Market. 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1798.

Out of whose cage this summer bird flew to the Hay-Market, we are not told. We find, however, on examination, that it is a bird which not only *sings* but *talks*; and though we have not been able to hear its *warblings*, we are qualified to give our opinion of its powers of *speech*, since what it uttered has been printed.

To get rid however of a troublesome metaphor, and speak of this production in plain English, we may apply its own title to the merit of its writing and its characters. There are some good scenes, some comic and agreeable songs, and some amiable personages in the drama:—but the character of *Caliari* is too black and disgusting for comedy; *Count Benini* is too gay, foolish, and frolicsome, for an

an Italian old man, though his archetype might possibly have been found in France some time ago; the *Marchesa Veteria* is too coquettish, fantastical, weak, and ridiculous, for an ugly old woman of any country; *O'Rafarty* is too absurd, even for a stage Irishman; and the Assassins are too easily found and purchased, even for Italy.

Exaggeration is the great defect of this drama. We are not unacquainted with the customs and manners of the Neapolitans, and can venture to say, from our own knowlege, that there was a greater appearance of liberty, manliness, and personal safety there, a few years ago, than in any other city in Italy. Its climate is delightful; its productions are abundant, and of easy purchase; and there was a greater cheerfulness of countenance, with more seeming happiness, among the people of that kingdom, even in rags, than among those of any other country which we have seen. Such are the warmth and salubrity of the air, that clothes are a burden to the inhabitants; and the children of the poor will not be incommoded by shoes and stockings, even when given to them by compassionate strangers from northern climates, who imagine a warm covering to be the first of earthly blessings.

Art. 22. *The School for Ingratitude;* a Comedy, in Five Acts: so LIKE, in *many* Points—in ONE, so UNLIKE—"CHEAP LIVING." 8vo. Bell, Oxford-street.

Heavy complaints are made by the author of this comedy, which had been submitted to the inspection of the managers of Drury-lane Theatre, and suffered to remain in their hands almost a year, when another play on a similar subject, intitled *Cheap Living*, was brought on the stage, and his own rejected. He seems to insinuate, in strong terms, that some unfair use had been made of his MS.; and that the *coincidences* of character, sentiment, and expression, are as much beyond the power of chance, as the system of the universe.—As he states the case, indeed, there certainly does seem a *coincidence* which is rather incredible, and unaccountable by the laws of chance:—but not having seen the defence of the managers, nor of the rival author, we cannot enter deeply into the controversy, nor pretend to decide, judicially, on this misprision of plagiarism. Let us see, however, what kind of drama it is, that has been thought worth pillaging so unmercifully.

On perusal, we must own that commiseration for the author has not had the power of making us partial to the merits of the piece. We scarcely think that, with the best possible acting, it could have been well received by the public. The brutality and villany of *Perkins*, one of the principal characters, are disgusting; and we see nothing either pleasant or ingenious in the duplicity and rascality of *Janus*, another prominent character. The scene at the Chop-house is vulgar in the extreme, and by no means risible. Low Comedy, in the hands of a man of humour, is diverting, and often makes us laugh till we are ashamed of ourselves: but mirth and laughter cannot be excited by scenes of dirty distress and pilfering. The characters, here, verge too much on vice and villany, to be amusing. There is, indeed, no tragic murder nor conspiracy: but *rank* offences and immorality abound.—The only two characters for whom a wish can be

be formed, except for their being hanged, are feebly written. We thought *Hopeful* amiable and innocent, till he joined in robbing the palace at Lambeth.—" But what a *genius!*" Thrice is this vulgar exclamation uttered at the gross thefts and ravenous appetite of the principal hero, *Quickscent*, on which the character of *Spunge*, in *Cheap Living*, is supposed to be formed. The whole is indeed such a farrago; there is such confusion in the denouement; such indelicacy in seizing for wives, on such short acquaintance, *two* females, who had been rather debauched by than married to *one* man; and the dinner-*stealer*, not *hunter*, is so gross, unnatural, and unlikely to be tolerated in society; that the loss to the public, by the rejection of this play, will certainly not be very great,—whatever it may be to the author.

There is a considerable dissimilitude between a parasite who obtains an invitation, or invites himself, to dinner, where he is an unwelcome guest, and a man, like Mr. *Scentwell*, (if such ever had existence,) who steals his dinner, by robbing the kitchen, the pantry, and even the table during a repast.

We were not much captivated with Mr. Reynolds's play of *Cheap Living**: but with all its exaggeration and deficiencies, since that and *the School for Ingratitude* are brought into comparison, justice obliges us to confess that the former is the best production of the two. The impudence of *Spunge* is outrageously overcharged: but we have heard of parasites, though never of town-footpads, or dinner-lifters, robbing people's larders and plates in open daylight.

Art. 23. *A Monody on the Death of Mr. John Palmer, the Comedian.* To which is prefixed a Review of his Theatrical Powers: with Observations on the most eminent Performers on the London Stage; inscribed to Mrs. Siddons. By T. Harral, Author of *Leisure Moments*. 8vo, pp. 20. 1s. Cawthorne.

This production comes from the pen of a cordial friend and enthusiastic admirer of the late excellent actor whom it celebrates; of whose various and extensive talents, his family and the public were deprived by a sudden death on the stage at Liverpool, during the exercise of his profession.

We perfectly agree with the author as to the variety and excellence of Mr. Palmer's theatrical powers, and the loss which the lovers of the drama have sustained by his decease, in the meridian of his fame: but we are not so certain of the necessity and utility of that *spirit of comparison* which runs through the whole *review* now before us. To instruct the people at large how to feel and how to admire in their amusements, is assuming a kind of dictatorial power which may make it difficult to please them, while it will not add to their real enjoyment.

Such a review as this must be extremely mortifying to individuals whose talents are depreciated, and will excite envy, hatred, malice, and all uncharitableness, in the objects of the author's disapprobation. The applause which each performer receives from the spontaneous feelings of the public is the most certain test of his or her

* See Rev. Dec. 1797, p. 465.

merit;

merit; while the company which a performer can attract to a theatre is the manager's most unerring steel-yard.

We are ready to subscribe to almost all that the animated author says of actors and actresses of the first class, except when he deducts from Mrs. Jordan's merit in the two serious parts of *Ophelia* and *Juliet*. The bewitching tones and manner, with which she sings the little fragments of old melodies in the former, render her in that character (to our thinking) superior to any actress by whom it has been performed in our time; and yet we well remember Mrs. Cibber charming us very much in the songs of *Ophelia*. Though so extremely playful and comic in gay parts, Mrs. Jordan's speaking voice is so truly mellifluous, feminine, and touching, in serious parts, (such as *Juliet*, for example,) that if, like Garrick, she were placed between *Comedy* and *Tragedy*, it would be very difficult to determine to which of the goddesses she most particularly appertained.

We old folks are scarcely ever satisfied with a *new* performer in an *old* part. The best actors whom we saw in our youth, when judgment was weak and feeling was strong, have taken such possession of our affections, that we are apt to think that every deviation from their manner is erroneous. It is in *new pieces*, where all comparison is precluded, that a new performer has fair play, by the audience giving way to their feelings; without drawing parallels, or comparing them with any thing besides the images of Nature, which Nature herself has implanted in our existence.

The poetry of our author is sufficiently *Pindaric*, if irregular measures still continue to be honoured with that title: but the praise of the hero is so violent, not only as an actor but as a man, that it will be apt to excite an invidious wish to "draw his frailties from their dread abode." By asking too much, it generally happens that too little is granted.—The following is part of his *beatitude*:

'Behold, in yon cerulean space,
An *heav'nly cherub* takes his place
With fadeless glory crown'd——
He comes! your hero comes! eternal bliss to share.
"Hark! hark! from yon ethereal cloud,
Angelic sounds advancing
The happy soul entrancing
Inspire the circling crowd."
And having found "another and a better world."
"A balmy halo plays around his brow
An *angel sweetness* prompts religion's vow."

Art. 24. *Elegy on a much-loved Niece;* with an Hymn from the Ethiopic. By Eusebio. 4to. 1s. Egerton. 1798.

'"Tis love alone that brandishes the rod
'To wean us from the world, to wisdom and to God.'

Thus sings Eusebio; and thus no doubt we ought to consider the various afflictions with which we are exercised by Providence. Indeed, before those who suffer the loss of relations and friends can strike the mournful strings of the elegiac lyre, the mind must be somewhat calmed by religious and philosophic reflection; so that the

'building of the lofty rhyme' is rather the evidence than the cause of returning consolation. The muse may wonderfully relieve the mind and assist its resignation, after it has attained a sufficient degree of calmness to arrange its thoughts in harmonious numbers.

On the subject of privations by death, the train of sentiment must be for the most part common. The survivor is told not to grieve, for this world is full of sorrow; while that world, to which the departed spirit is fled, is full of joy. Eusebio makes this contrast:

'What is frail man, ev'n at his happiest height?
A wand'ring pilgrim through a vale of tears.
Think then, had Sorrow's storm or Envy's blight
Nipt the sweet blossom in its riper years;
And own that Fate's inevitable pow'r
In kindness interpos'd, and cropp'd the lovely Flow'r.
The lovely Flower, more eminently bright,
Now safe-transplanted to a happier clime,
Imparts new beauty to the Bowers of LIGHT,
Where it shall bloom in never-fading prime,
Fann'd by the gales of PARADISE, and fed
With ever-living streams at GLORY'S Fountain-Head!'

Following unfortunately the example of Dr. Watts in this respect, he blends the sentiments and representations of religion with those of the passion of love: hence he represents his FANNY as

'IMPARADIS'D in her MESSIAH'S arms!'

The serious muse should take care not to excite such an idea as this description may possibly give. Religious poets ought to be very cautious in the use of words. They should not convert the love due to Christ into a passion, and the Christian's heaven into a Mohammedan paradise.

Art. 25. *Song of the Battle of the Nile.* Published for the Benefit of the Widows and Children of the brave Men who fell on that memorable Day, and humbly inscribed to the Gentlemen of the Committee. By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M. Rector of Dumbleton, Gloucestershire. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

There is a wildness of sublimity in this patriotic celebration of Admiral Nelson's truly glorious victory, which may not perfectly gratify every ear, nor suit every taste; yet we think that, with most readers, it will not fail of supporting the author's unquestionable reputation as a poet. Some objection we might, perhaps, have made to the irregular structure of the versification of this poem:—but true criticism wars not with benevolence, and the love of our country.

If it be objected that the title of "SONG" is unsuitable to the lofty and awful spirit of this poem, the author answers [in a *note*] that it is here used in its highest sense, as applicable to a lyrical composition.

RELIGIOUS *and* POLEMICAL.

Art. 26. *An Epistolary Discussion upon* [*of*] *Religion*, between G. W. a Protestant of the Church of England, and M. J. B. B. a French

a French Roman Catholic. 12mo. pp. 190. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies, Boosey, &c. 1798.

The subjects of this discussion are; the church; statues and images; invocation of saints; service in an unknown tongue; eucharist; communion under one kind only; penance [sacrament]; tradition; purgatory; indulgences; celibacy of priests; monastic vows; explanation of "*Do this in remembrance of me;*" mass; Luther's sentiment on the real presence of Christ in the eucharist; confession; relics of saints; reading scripture; the Pope; fasting; theology; legends; holy-water; rites and ceremonies; singing; uncharitableness of the Roman Catholics; antichrist; submission to higher powers; festivals of saints; cruelty of the Roman Catholics; toleration.

From the French idiom which prevails throughout this little work, and from the tenets which it inculcates, we have no reason to doubt that it was written, as the title expresses, by a French Roman Catholic.—G W. the poor Protestant, being the man of straw set up in this discussion, merely for the purpose of being knocked down by Mr. J. B. B. the doughty champion of catholicism, we shall take no notice of the feeble resistance which he makes to his conversion: but it may not be amiss to shew our readers what is the specious mode adopted in the present day in order to gain proselytes, by the zealous members of the church of Rome.

The author sets out with telling his catechumen (who, by the way, seems half a Roman Catholic before the controversy begins) that there is but one way to Heaven, and that is a narrow one: this, says he, 'is what you believe as well as I: but what you may believe, and I do not, is that, to be in that way, it is enough to believe in Christ, and to receive, as inspired from God, the old and new testaments, in whatever manner they be understood; as if truth were not essentially one and indivisible, and two people of a contrary opinion on the same subject might be both right: surely, Sir, if one be so, the other is necessarily wrong.

'The Roman Catholic believes (continues Mr. J. B. B.), that the church, out of which there is no salvation, is the catholic and apostolic church, the head of which, the Pope, successor of St. Peter, by a visible and uninterrupted succession of about 250 bishops, acknowleged as such by the Christian world, has, generally speaking, always resided in Rome from her establishment; for which reason, she is called the *Catholic*, *Apostolic*, and *Roman* church.

'That the church is infallible: *i. e.* that, if any part or parts of her happen to fall into error, Jesus Christ will not permit that the others fall into it, *at the same time*; so that, when duly interrogated on the controverted point, their answer, God making good his word recorded in Matth. xxviii. 20, shall always declare the truth, such as it was taught by Jesus Christ and preached by his apostles and their lawful successors.

'That there are seven sacraments of the new law, understanding by a sacrament, *a sensible sign of invisible grace*; viz. baptism, eucharist, confirmation, penance, holy orders, extreme unction, and matrimony; the existence of which stands proved by what follows;

Baptism, *Unless a man be born again of water and the Holy Ghost, he cannot enter into the kingdom of God*, John, iii. 13. Eucharist, *Unless you eat the flesh of the son of man, and drink his blood, you shall not have life in you*, John, vi. 54. Confirmation, *They laid their hands upon them and they received the Holy Ghost*, Acts, viii. 17. Penance, *Whose sins you shall forgive, they are forgiven them, and whose you shall retain, they are retained*, John, xx. 23. Holy orders, *I admonish thee, that thou stir up the grace of God which is in thee, by the imposition of my hands*, 2 Tim. i. 6. Extreme unction, *Let them pray over him, anointing him with oil in the name of the Lord, and if he be in sins, they shall be forgiven him*, James, v. 14. Matrimony is not so explicitly recorded in scripture as a sacrament; but the church, by declaring that it was always received by all the Catholic world, as a sacrament of the new law, has removed all doubt about its existence as such.'

The author then proceeds to transubstantiation, purgatory, the power of granting indulgences, the stories contained in the legends, &c. all of which he takes great pains to reduce to *the level of the meanest capacity*.

Art. 27. *A Glance at the History of Christianity, and of English Nonconformity*. Third Edition, with additional Notes, and a Postscript on the present Movement in the East. By James Bicheno, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson, &c. 1798.

A compendium of the history of popery, of the rise of protestantism, and of English nonconformity; the principal reasons for the latter of which, as it exists at present, Mr. B. says are seven. 1. The frame and constitution of the established church, it being *national*. 2. The officers of it; the scriptures knowing nothing of many of them. 3. The mode of worship. 4. The ceremonies. 5. The terms of admission to membership and to the ministry. 6. The choice of ministers. 7. The discipline of the church.

In his justification of nonconformity, Mr. B. remarks that 'in the New Testament we read of no *national* churches, made up of the *mass* of the people;'—surely for a very good reason, since the New Testament history only relates the introduction of Christianity into several states and kingdoms, and not its triumph or complete establishment in any one. By referring us therefore back to the infancy of the Gospel, nonconformists do not produce a case in point, nor fix on precedents exactly suited to the state of countries professing Christianity.

Mr. B. is one of those who have undertaken to interpret Apocalyptic prophecies, and to explain the signs of the times; that is to say, he views the politics of the day through a theological medium. He is therefore of opinion that 'the commotions which now shake the world are judgments which are to dash in pieces the nations of the earth—to cleanse the sanctuary of God, and to make way for the kingdom of Jesus Christ.' Can Mr. B. think that what is now passing in Europe has any tendency to 'dash in pieces' the Chinese empire?

Mr. B. proceeds to tell us 'that we are just entering on the calamities of *the 6th vial of wrath*, which is to be poured out on the *great river Euphrates*, or the Ottoman empire.' What authority has

he

he for taking the *great river Euphrates* to mean the *Ottoman empire* * ? A conjectural interpreter of the Revelation (and all is mere conjecture) may have the seven vials poured out in each of the wars in which Europe has been engaged for centuries past. It is better to exhort to christian piety, virtue, and charity, than to pretend to explain what is completely beyond explanation. Conjecture, which comes in the serious garb of piety, and in the shape and semblance of prophetic interpretation, is frequently respected: but we think that it is a species of presumption which ought rather to be discouraged.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *An Address delivered to the Committees of the several Parishes of St. Peter and Paul, St. James, St. Michael, Lyncomb and Widcomb, and Bathwick*, met to deliberate upon the Propriety of incorporating for the better Relief and Employment of the Poor by the Establishment of an House of Industry. By J. Wood, a Director of the Shrewsbury-House. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

Perhaps no question has been agitated with more warmth, by those persons who have employed their thoughts on the management of the money appropriated by law for the maintenance of the poor, than the expediency of establishing houses of Industry in different parts of the kingdom. It cannot be denied that houses of Industry, in some counties, have been attended with all the advantages which their advocates could expect;—and it is not less true that, in other parts, they have proved the source of distress and misery. In the latter case, something may be ascribed to local and accidental circumstances, and yet more to negligence and mismanagement.

Without presuming, however, to decide on a matter of so much importance, we can with truth say that the work before us is very well written, and deserving of attention. The author seems not only to be master of the subject, but to possess a feeling and benevolent heart: the arguments which he advances in favour of houses of Industry appear to us very strong: from his situation in life as a director of the celebrated Shrewsbury-house, he must have had the best means of information; and we think that we may safely recommend this address to the perusal of those who, actuated by a philanthropic spirit, interest themselves in subjects of this nature.

Art. 29. *Buonaparte in Egypt:* or, *An Appendix* to the *Inquiry* into his supposed Expedition to the East. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Nicol. 1798.

Mr. Irwin's *Inquiry* was the subject of a brief article in our *Catalogue* for September, p. 107. That tract was, necessarily, a work of speculation rather than intelligence; and the same may be observed of this supplement, in which Mr. I. communicates to the public his remarks on this extraordinary scheme of the French government,

* If *Babylon* be interpreted to mean *Rome*, the river *Euphrates*, on whose banks antient Babylon stood, may mean something relative to Rome:—but have we, protestants, good and sufficient authority for saying that the *Pope* is indeed *the whore of Babylon?*

and on its *known* circumstances, since the destruction of their fleet by the victorious Nelson.

Mr. Irwin is now, if possible, more strongly than ever persuaded of the total ruin which from the beginning awaited the Gallic invaders of Egypt; yet he somewhat dubiously concludes this pamphlet with the following paragraph:

'We are arrived at times, when probabilities are no longer to be weighed, but measures to be adopted against seeming impossibilities. Buonaparte's appearance in Egypt has put calculation to the blush; and his reaching the coast of India, is only wanting to make us dubious of every thing, but the success of these marauders, in the breach of all faith, and the contempt of all rule and experience! Let the Company, let the Nation, be aware of the catastrophe. Though the present moment be unfavourable to him, Buonaparte may so far succeed in his views, as to establish himself in Egypt. If the plague spare what this prowess and military genius may preserve from the sword, a year or two may produce a revolution at sea, to enable him to build and collect vessels for his projected expedition. An Admiral, whom I am proud to call my friend, has been long appointed to the Indian station. What delays the sailing of Sir John Colpoys? and why are his local knowledge and enterprising talents so long withheld from the threatened scene of action? If a pass be once made over the Gulf that separates Egypt and India, by the undaunted perseverance of Buonaparte, the charm will be dissolved, and our possessions contested. No less fatal will it prove to the British grandeur, than the bridge which Satan threw over Chaos, to mankind, where

"Sin and Death amain
Following his track, such was the will of Heaven,
Pav'd after him a broad and beaten way
Over the dark abyss." MILTON.'

Art. 30. *Reply to Irwin*: or, The Feasibility of Buonaparte's supposed Expedition to the East, exemplified. By an Officer in the Service of the East India Company. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

These remarks on the above-mentioned '*Inquiry*' appear to have presented themselves to the public under a disadvantage to which Mr. Irwin's pamphlet is not exposed: the *Answer* wants the credit of its author's *name*.—With Mr. I.'s abilities, and his personal knowlege of the countries concerned in these discussions, we were previously acquainted, and were consequently prepared to afford him that attention to which his respectable character was entitled: but his anonymous opponent comes forth with no such advantage. He informs us, in the course of his observations on Mr. I.'s tracts, as well as in his title-page, that he has seen military service in the eastern parts of the globe; and for this assurance we are inclined to give him full credit: but we have no doubt that his readers would have been better satisfied if his name had accompanied his pages, as openly as that of Mr. Irwin has appeared on this occasion.

Not-

Notwithstanding this objection, we have little doubt respecting the author's personal acquaintance with some of the countries which have been, or were proposed to be, visited by Buonaparte; and there is an appearance of candor as well as of solidity in his objections to some of Mr. Irwin's representations. In brief, as, on the one hand, he declares himself to be 'by no means influenced by a spirit of despondency,' neither, on the other, does he 'in the smallest degree desire to excite a false alarm.' He adds, 'there is certainly an appearance of an extensive confederacy * against the British possessions in Asia, and to obviate the effect, we have only to be prepared to meet it, by the adoption of such permanent arrangements there, as to obviate the necessity of resorting to temporary expedients, which, in a government so far removed from the mother country, may fatally prove too late; and not leave, what is allowed to be the "brightest jewel in the British crown," to that fate on which one of its greatest rulers has emphatically expressed its existence to be suspended, "BY A THREAD SO FINE, THAT THE TOUCH OF CHANCE MIGHT BREAK, OR THE BREATH OF OPINION DISSOLVE IT."

*** These two articles were written for insertion in our Review for November, but could not, till now, find room.

Art. 31. *Remarks on Inland Canals*, the small System of interior Navigation, various Uses of the Inclined Plane, &c. &c. In a Letter from William Tatham, to a Proprietor in the Colebrook-Dale and Stratford Canals. 4to. 1s. J. Taylor. 1798.

This tract affords but small ground, to merely speculative persons, for ascertaining the relative merits of the lock and inclined plane used for the purposes of inland navigation. It may, however, in some degree, be interesting to those persons who are previously acquainted with the subjects to which Mr. Tatham refers.

Art. 32. *A brief Account of Stratford on Avon*; with a particular Description and Survey of the Collegiate Church, the Mausoleum of Shakspeare, containing all the Armorial Bearings and Monumental Inscriptions therein: to which is added, some Account of the three eminent Prelates who derive their Sirnames from Stratford, the Place of their Nativity. 12mo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Stratford, printed: London, sold by Robinsons.

The contents of this small tract are sufficiently specified in the above title. It has been, we understand, the innocent (and, if leisure admitted, the commendable) employment of a youth, who was persuaded to make public what he had collected on the subject. Dugdale's work is too voluminous for general recourse. To persons who visit a spot so famed, on one account at least, this pamphlet may probably prove an agreeable companion, and not wholly unacceptable as amusement to others.—The young author has judged rightly in affixing a brief Account of John, Robert, and Ralph, *De Stratford*, who were natives of this town, and assumed their distinguishing

* The principal of which he particularises in the course of his observations. *Rev.*

name from it; all of them were eminent in the annals of the English history, particularly in the reign of Edward III. Other authors, as well as the present, have written *sir*name instead of *sur*name.

Art. 33. *The ancient History of Ireland*, proved from the Sanscrit Books of the Bramins of India. By General Vallancey. 8vo. pp. 30. Dublin. 1797.

In our Review for October last, we gave some account of a recent publication by Mr. Maurice, intitled "Sanscrit Fragments;" and it now appears that the last part of it, said to relate to the British Isles, is a republication of the tract at present before us. We then expressed our hopes that Capt. Wilford's communications respecting the allusions to the British Isles, which that gentleman imagined he had discovered in the Hindu Puranas, had not been given to the public without the permission of the ingenious author. This observation was not of a nature to be overlooked by a man of General Vallancey's character; and he has, accordingly, convinced us, by a letter from a Mr. Ouseley, in India, (though not from Major Ouseley, as the General supposes,) that he was at liberty to make what use he thought fit of Capt. Wilford's remarks. These remarks have been (by the aforesaid Mr. Ouseley) styled *extracts*; and thus the General has been led to imagine that the conjectures of Capt. Wilford are actually *extracted from the Puranas*. They begin by observing that "the British Isles are called in the Hindu sacred books Tricatachal, or the mountain with three peaks," &c. Now, is this, we ask, an extract from the Puranas; or is it a conjecture of Capt. Wilford, that the place thus called in those antient poems may *(par grand hazard)* be the British Isles? The first supposition does not deserve a comment.—Capt. Wilford has not assigned a single reason in support of his opinion above quoted; consequently, General Vallancey and Mr. Maurice assign none: but, assuming it as proved that the Suvornachal, or golden mountain, (the others are of silver and iron,) was no other than Ireland, it remained only to explain a legend respecting a pious monarch of that country, contained in a real extract from the Brahmanda Puran, accurately translated by Capt. Wilford. His name was Cracacheswara. Now there is mention made in Irish records of a King Crach, who attempted to kill St. Patrick; *ergo*—We leave the *sequitur* to be deduced by those who may think that history is susceptible of illustration from verbal analogies.

We hope that General Vallancey will not class us with "the unlettered tribe, who have aimed the shaft of ridicule at the vindicator of the history and antiquities of his country." Nothing, indeed, can be farther from our intention: but we think it deserving of his serious contemplation, how far such discussions as are contained in this pamphlet are calculated to elucidate the history of Ireland.

Art. 34. *Voyage du jeune Anacharsis en Grèce, abrégé de l'Ouvrage de l'Abbé Barthélemy*; &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 377. 6s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1798.

This French abridgment of the travels of Anacharsis closely resembles an English epitome noticed by us in vol. xxiii, p. 234, and

is decorated with the same prints and maps as that edition. The historical introduction has here been wisely prefixed; and the volume is farther enriched with a life of Barthélemy, from the pen of the late Duke of Nivernois, which was mentioned in our xviiith vol. p. 558. The work is well adapted to the use of schools and young persons.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, *Nov.* 29, 1798.

Art. 35. *The Privileges of Britain*, preached at the Meeting-House in the Old Jewry. By Abraham Rees, D. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons, &c.

This discourse is rational, pious, and loyal. Dr. Rees has made the walls of the Old Jewry resound with a discourse which a Bishop might have preached at St. James's, and which would probably have given universal satisfaction to his audience: while at the same time the Doctor has not violated any one of his own principles. From *Isaiah*, v. 4. he has exhibited our local, civil, and religious privileges, with a view of exciting our gratitude to God for the blessings which we enjoy.

Lord Nelson's splendid victory is thus loyally noticed. 'The late victory on the coast of Africa, so important in itself, so beneficial in its consequences, and so honourable to all who were engaged in atchieving it, will bring to our grateful recollection the glorious *first* of August, which has been long celebrated as the æra of the accession of his Majesty's family to the throne of these realms, and by none of his Majesty's most loyal subjects more sincerely and more joyfully than by protestant dissenters.'

What would Mr. Burke have said to such a sermon preached in the Old Jewry?

Instead of commenting, we will make one more short extract.

'Such have been our late victories, that we have reason to hope that the attempts of the enemy against our religion and liberty will prove unsuccessful; and that neither their licentious principles nor their present conduct will find any advocates in this country. That Providence, which has hitherto fenced us round and preserved our possessions and persons inviolate, will, we trust, yet deliver us, and render our salvation complete and permanent.'

Art. 36. *The Lord protecting Great Britain for his own Name's Sake.* Preached at the Lock Chapel, and at St. Mildred's Church, Bread-Street. By Thomas Scott, Chaplain of the Lock Hospital. 8vo. 1s. Matthews, &c.

In introducing the subject of this discourse, Mr. S. observes: 'We do not meet here to enquire what men have been doing, but what the Lord hath done for us as a guilty nation.' So far he is right. He well understands the extent and limits of his province. Clergymen are not invited to preach Fast or Thanksgiving Sermons in order that they may discuss the merits or demerits of statesmen, but seriously to trace, if they can, and to improve the over-ruling Providence of God, who is carrying on his designs amid the contending interests, passions, and vices of men. Mr. S. has not undertaken distinctly and fully to explain what he means by the Lord's protect-

ing us for *his own name's sake*; though we think that he means for the sake of the honour of his divine perfections and moral government; for the sake of religious truth; and for the promotion of that great system of mercy which is the object of revelation. In this view of the matter, there is something truly sublime;—something to which the vision of the mere worldly politician does not extend.

This serious preacher enumerates a variety of instances in which the hand of Providence (when our own arm was impotent) has interposed for us, especially in the preservation of Ireland, and during the mutiny on board our fleet. With suitable praise to each of our victorious naval Lords, he blends gratitude and praise to '*the alone Giver of all victory.*' He seems to consider Great Britain as protected and preserved, as Judah was of old, in order to promote some religious purpose among the nations of the earth; and we sincerely hope that he has predicted rightly as to the future scheme of Providence. He remarks that, 'notwithstanding all our heinous crimes, we have not by any *national act* renounced the profession of Christianity.' He farther notices, (what we wonder to see omitted in most of the sermons on this day,) the different language of the British and French commanders, in reporting to their respective governments the victory of the Nile. Lord Nelson ascribes the result to ALMIGHTY GOD:—Buonaparte, *to the Destinies*;—'And so long (says Mr. Scott) as God is thus openly acknowledged by us, and despised or defied by our enemies; we may hope that "he will withdraw his hand, and work for his name's sake, that it should not be polluted in the sight of the heathen." (Text, Ezek. xx. 22.)

Yet Mr. Scott is not for boasting and vaunting on account of our successes. 'A consistent Christian (he observes) will be pained to hear of *Britain's ruling the waves*, for he knows that the Lord *alone* rules the sea and the land.' This perhaps is carrying seriousness too far: but it proceeds, no doubt, from a spirit of genuine piety.

A volume of Sermons by Mr. Scott has lain for some time on our shelf, but is not forgotten.

Art. 37. Preached at the Meeting-House in Carter-Lane. By Thomas Tayler. 8vo. 6d. Dilly.

We have met with laughing tragedies and crying comedies; with sprightly fast-sermons, and melancholy thanksgiving discourses. Mr. T.'s sermon is of the latter description. Apprehensive that we may probably be *too happy*, he exhorts us (Psal. ii. 11.) *to rejoice with trembling*; since, notwithstanding our victories, 'we are still in circumstances of danger and uncertainty.' It is true that he is not insensible of our national blessings; for he freely confesses, for himself, that he has never heard of any country, in any part of the world, which he should prefer to his own: but he mixes with his pious gratitude the most fearful apprehensions;—so that his sermon might have been intitled—*Reasons against premature Thanksgivings*. 'At such an interesting period as the present, (says Mr. T.) who can say what we may yet live to see or to suffer?'

It is but justice to add that Mr. Tayler views the great events, now passing in the world, through the medium of genuine religion and

Christian

Christian piety; and that he has too much reason for the gloomy sentiments which he has interspersed through the offerings of thanksgiving.

Art. 38. Preached at Weston under Penyard, Herefordshire. By Charles Nosworthy Michell, M. A. of Oriel Coll. Oxon, and Curate of Weston. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

Multum in parvo. Mr. M. shews that we have reason to be thankful, and ought not to object to abridge our luxuries in order to preserve our many substantial blessings. His text is Psalm cvii. 2.

Art. 39. Before the Honourable House of Commons, Nov. 29, 1798, at St. Margaret's, Westminster. By Thomas Rennell, D. D. Master of the Temple. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Popularly and well adapted to the great and interesting occasion; and suitable to the times, and to the audience before whom it was delivered.

SINGLE SERMONS *on other Occasions.*

Art. 40. *The Duty of Thanksgiving*, preached at the Foundling-Hospital, Dec. 19, 1797, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson, &c.

A judicious exhibition of the strong reasons which we have for being thankful to the Giver of all good, for the various blessings which he bestows on ourselves, on our neighbour, and on our country; from Psalm cxxvi. 26.

Art. 41. Preached in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, for the Benefit of the Choir of the said Church; for defraying necessary and incidental expences, and forming a Fund for its future Permanence and Prosperity. By the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D. D. To which are added Notes and an Appendix. 4to. pp. 50. 1s. Rivingtons, &c. 1798.

Dr. M. here discusses the subject of Church music with the enthusiasm of a professed amateur. Viewing psalmody as 'the most exalted and ennobling part of Christian worship,' he is desirous of rendering it as perfect as possible; and it must be confessed that, in most of our churches, this portion of the service requires much improvement. Surely, if psalmody is to make a part of the public worship, it should be executed with propriety; and both the translation and the music should be as excellent as they can be made. Every one, therefore, who is desirous of having the service in our churches conducted with decency and effect, must wish success to Dr. M. in the object of this discourse.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the EDITOR *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

SIR,

I Request you will inform your readers that a reply to Mr. Wood's Letter, inserted in your Review for November, relative to some animadversions I had incidentally made on his "Account of the Shrewsbury House of Industry," has appeared in the Monthly Magazine for

for December; and that I should have begged your insertion of this reply in your Review for the present month, but was persuaded that, from its length, it would have been inadmissible. I am, Sir,

'Caroline Place, Guildford-Street, Jan. 10. 1799.

Your obedient humble Servant,
JOHN MASON GOOD.'

We have received a polite letter from Dr. Underwood, informing us that the publication *on the disorders of childhood*, reviewed in our Number for September last, is not intended by him as a new edition of his work on the *Diseases of Children*,—but as a separate production *adapted exclusively to domestic use*.—We learn also, that a new edition of his former treatise is almost completed. To this edition, which will be *calculated solely for medical readers*, we shall pay the necessary attention on its appearance.

In our last Number, we noticed Mr. Salmon's new edition of *Les Aventures de Telemaque*, as a correct and neat impression: it may also be acceptable information to our readers to know that there is an inferior edition, printed with the same types, and comprised in *one* volume, without plates, price 3s. 6d. in boards.

B. D. is informed that we intend to examine into the merits of the work which he mentions, as soon as opportunity permits. It has already been some time in our possession, but we have not yet been able to peruse it.

It would be improper for us to comply with the request of X. Y. Z. —Some intelligent friend may be able to satisfy him.

We must not suffer ourselves to be drawn into controversy, by anonymous correspondents, on such points as that which is the object of a letter signed *Clericus Westmoriensis*. Our duty does not require, and our time will not permit, that we should enter into debate with every unknown correspondent who may differ from us in opinion.

A correspondent who signs *D.* gives us reason to conclude that Mr. George Forster, son of the late * Dr. J. R. Forster, could not have been the author of the Journey from Bengal to England, mentioned in our last Review. We were also incorrect in stating that Dr. F. and his son accompanied Captain Cook in his *first* voyage: it was in the *second* voyage.

*** The readers of the Review are requested to take notice that the APPENDIX to Vol. XXVII. consisting of copious accounts of various important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS, with the General Title, Table of Contents, and Index, for the Volume, is (as usual) published with this Number.

☞ P. 89. l. 26. for τρῶλιαν, r. τρῶλαῖαν; and l. 27. for *vocati*, r. *vocali*.

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* His death has been announced in some foreign papers; to which we must refer as all our authority. One of our Magazines has also recorded the decease of Mr. G. F.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1799.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*; for the Year 1798. Part II. 4to. 15s. sewed. Elmsley and Bremner.

WE proceed without the formality of introductory remarks, to the review of the articles contained in this volume; several of which are peculiarly valuable and interesting, and will therefore require considerable attention. We shall distribute them according to our usual arrangement, and begin with the

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHILOSOPHICAL *Papers.*

A Disquisition on the Stability of Ships *. *By* George Atwood, *Esq.* F. R. S.

We have already taken notice of the general principles on which this elaborate disquisition is founded: See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxiii. p. 45. In the paper to which we have referred, the author has demonstrated a general theorem for determining the floating positions of bodies, and has applied it to those of various forms. He has also shewn that the same theorem is not less applicable to the stability of vessels; making due allowances for the shape of the sides, their inclination from the upright, and other circumstances, by which their stability can be affected. He here pursues the investigation of the same subject, which is equally useful and curious, in a manner that does honour to his judgment and diligence; and by a great variety of mathematical processes, he has adapted his theorem to all those cases which are most likely to occur. In doing this, he has extended and improved the theory of naval architecture, corrected the mistakes of some of the most distinguished writers on this part of mechanics, and has furnished principles and calculations which cannot fail to be of considerable service both in the construction and in the navigation of ships.

This paper, however excellent and valuable in itself, and in its reference to the various important purposes to which it may be applied, is not susceptible of abridgment; nor can we dis-

* The *stability* of ships is their being able to carry a sufficient quantity of sail without danger,' &c.

tinctly detail its contents, in a manner that will be intelligible and interesting to our readers, without the figures on which the illustration of them depends: but the following general account, premised by the author himself, will afford sufficient information to those who direct their attention to subjects of this nature, and who may be desirous of enlarging their acquaintance with them.

In estimating the stability of vessels in particular cases, by means of the theorem previously demonstrated, the author observes that

"The form of the sides, and the angle of inclination from the perpendicular, must be given. These conditions admit of great variety, considering the shape of the sides, both above the water-line and beneath it; for we may first assume a case, which is one of the most simple and obvious: this is, when the sides of a vessel are parallel to the plane of the masts, both above and beneath the water-line; or, secondly, the sides may be parallel to the masts under the water-line, and project outward, or may be inclined inward, above the said line; or they may be parallel to the masts above the water-line, and inclined either inward or outward beneath it; some of these cases, as well as those which follow, being not improper in the construction of particular species of vessels, and the others, although not suited to practice, will contribute to illustrate the general theory. The sides of a vessel may also coincide with the sides of a wedge, inclined to each other at a given angle; which angle, formed at an imaginary line, where the sides, if produced, would intersect each other, may be situated either under or above the water's surface. To these cases may be added, the circular form of the sides, and that of the Apollonian or conic parabola. The sides of vessels may also be assumed to coincide with curves of different species and dimensions, some of which approach to the forms adopted in the practice of naval architecture, particularly in the larger ships of burden. And lastly, the shape of the sides may be reducible to no regular geometrical law; in which case, the determination of the stability, in respect to a ship's rolling, requires the mensuration of the ordinates of the vertical sections which intersect the longer axis at right angles; similar mensurations are also required for determining the stability, in respect to the shorter axis, round which a vessel revolves in pitching. In order to describe distinctly these several cases, the variation of the sections, both in form and magnitude, from head to stern of the vessel, has not been considered; the sections being supposed equal and similar figures, such as they in reality are, near the greatest section of a ship, growing smaller, and altering their form, toward the head and stern. But, before this alteration can be taken into account, it is necessary first to ascertain the stability corresponding to a vessel or segment, in which the sections are equal and similar figures; from which determination, the stability is inferred which actually exists, when the form and magnitude of the sections alter continually, from one extremity of the vessel to the other. The consideration of the cases

which

which have been here stated, with inferences and observations thereon, is the subject of the ensuing pages; in which, if any ideas are suggested which may be at all useful in the practice of naval architecture, or may contribute to remove imperfect or erroneous notions which have been entertained respecting a principal branch of it, the intention of the author will be accomplished.'

Quelques Remarques d'Optique, principalement relatives à la Reflexibilité des Rayons de la Lumiere. Par P. Prevost, *Professeur de Philosophie à Geneve*, &c. &c.

These optical remarks were suggested by the perusal of a paper of Mr. Brougham, published in the first part of the Philosophical Transactions for 1796, (see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxiii. p. 42,) and containing some objections to the Newtonian theory of the reflexibility of light. M. Prevost begins with stating what Newton means by this term, and in what sense it is used by Mr. B.; and he then proceeds to inquire, in the first place, whether the homogeneous rays of light differ in reflexibility according to the Newtonian sense of the expression; or, in other words, whether, under the same angle of incidence, and all other circumstances being precisely similar, the violet ray will be reflected while the red ray is not reflected. To the well-known experiments by which Newton demonstrates this proposition, Mr. B. objects that "the demonstration involves a logical error. When the rays, by refraction through the base of the prism used in the experiment, are separated into their parts, these become divergent, the violet and red emerging at very different angles, and these were also incident on the base at different angles, from the refraction of the side at which they entered; when, therefore, the prism is moved round on its axis, as described in the proposition, the base is nearest the violet, from the position of the rays by refraction, and meets it first; so that the violet being reflected as soon as it meets the base, it is reflected before any of the other rays, not from a different disposition to be so, but merely from its different refrangibility."

In examining this objection, the author allows that, while the prism is turned round on its axis in the manner described by Newton, the white ray, which fell perpendicularly on the anterior side of the prism, will now fall obliquely. In the case which he represents, and to which his figure is adapted, the incident rays will be refracted towards the perpendicular: but the most refrangible, *i. e.* the violet, will approach the nearest to it; and the least refrangible, *i. e.* the red, will be the most remote from it. The former will, therefore, make a greater angle with the base of the prism than the latter; and, as the angles of incidence are the complements of these angles re-

spectively, the violet ray will meet the base or the reflecting side of the prism under a less angle of incidence than the red ray, and consequently it will be in circumstances less favourable to reflection than the other. Nevertheless, the violet ray is reflected sooner than the red ray; and, therefore, the former is, in its own nature, more reflexible than the latter, according to the Newtonian sense of the expression. Hence M. Prevost infers that Mr. B.'s conclusion, which is unquestionably just, furnishes an argument *à fortiori* in favour of Newton's proposition: so that we may affirm not only that the violet ray is reflected sooner than the red ray at the same incidence, but even when its incidence is less favourable to reflection than that of the other.

The author proceeds to establish the same principle, and to vindicate it from Mr. B.'s objection, in the case in which the refracting angle of the prism is about 40°: but, without the diagram, we cannot do justice to this part of his reasoning. He concludes, on the whole, that Mr. B.'s objection is not sufficient to invalidate the proposition of Newton; and that we are still warranted in affirming, in the language and according to the precise sense of this great philosopher, that the most refrangible rays are also the most reflexible.

M. Prevost next inquires whether homogeneous rays differ in reflexibility, in the sense of Mr. B.: in other words, whether, under the same angle of incidence, the red ray forms a less angle of reflection, and the violet a greater angle of reflection, than the angle of incidence? In order to ascertain this point, Mr. B. presented the convex surface of a polished cylinder, of a very small diameter, to a white ray; and having measured the coloured spectrum which was reflected from it, and made the necessary calculation, he found that the mean rays, or those at the confine of green and blue, were reflected at an angle equal to that of incidence: but the red were reflected at a less angle, and the violet at a greater angle. M. Prevost investigates the evidence afforded by this experiment in favour of Mr. B.'s principle; and with this view he describes a circle to represent a section of the small polished cylinder, and a larger circle on the same centre to represent the corresponding section of the sphere of activity of the reflecting force, which encompasses this cylinder. He then supposes a white ray to fall on the surface of the sphere of activity. Since the red rays are more powerfully repelled than the violet, (which is Mr. B.'s own hypothesis,) the latter will penetrate more deeply into the sphere of the repulsive force than the former; and, as this force acts in lines perpendicular to the reflecting surface, the course which an homogeneous

ray

ray describes within the sphere of activity will be formed of two equal and similar curves or branches, whose axis passes through the centre of the sphere: hence it follows that the homogeneous ray will pass out of this sphere, so as to make an angle of reflection equal to that of incidence. Thus all the homogeneous rays, which form the same angle of incidence at the point of the reflecting medium on which they fall, will be reflected under equal angles:—but, as some of them penetrate deeper into this medium than others, they must diverge in their progress; because this divergency is necessary to render the angles of reflection equal. By pursuing this kind of reasoning, and availing himself of the figure which illustrates it, the author deduces this conclusion; that homogeneous rays are not unequally reflexible in the sense of Mr. B.; or that the law of reflection proposed by Newton, and evinced by his experiments, is the true law of Nature.

In the sequel of this paper, M. Prevost discusses other questions pertaining to this subject; and he thinks it probable that the rays of light are refracted, reflected, inflected, and deflected, by the same power variously exerted in different circumstances: but this, he observes, is a proposition which is not yet demonstrated.

Account of a singular Instance of Atmospherical Refraction. In a Letter from William Latham, *Esq.* F. R. S. & A. S.

About 5 o'clock P. M. in July 1797, the cliffs on the French coast were discovered from the shore at Hastings in Sussex, though the nearest distance is between 40 and 50 miles, and they are not usually discernible from that low situation by the aid of the best glasses. The places on the French coast, which were known to the sailors and fishermen, were described by them as appearing to be as near as when they were sailing, at a small distance, into the harbours. From the eastern cliff, which is considerably high, a very extensive and beautiful scene, comprehending Dungeness, the Dover Cliffs, and the French coast from Calais, Boulogne, &c. to St. Vallery, presented itself to view. 'This curious phænomenon continued in the highest splendour till past 8 o'clock, (although a black cloud totally obscured the face of the sun for some time,) when it gradually vanished.' The day was extremely hot, the thermometer at 5 in the afternoon being at 76°; the mercury in the barometer is supposed to have been high, as the day was remarkably fine and clear; the air was in a very calm state, so that scarcely a breath of wind was stirring; and it was high-water at Hastings about 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

Such are the principal circumstances which are recited in this paper, and which accompanied the singular appearance here commemorated.

Observations of the diurnal Variation of the Magnetic Needle, in the Island of St. Helena; with a Continuation of the Observations at Fort Marlborough, in the Island of Sumatra. By John Macdonald, *Esq.*

It appears from these observations that the general variation at St. Helena, in November 1796, was 15° 48′ 34 ½″ West; and by subtracting the medium diurnal afternoon variation from that of the morning, the vibrating variation proves to be 3′ 55″. 'The magnetic needle is stationary from about 6 o'clock in the evening till 6 o'clock in the morning; when it commences moving, and the west variation increases, till it amounts to its maximum, about 8 o'clock; diminishing afterward till it becomes stationary:' whereas, at the apartments of the Royal Society, this species of variation is found to increase from 7 A. M. till 2 P. M. The quantity of the diurnal variation is greater in England than at St. Helena or at Bencoolen. This, says the author, 'will naturally arise from this country's being more contiguous to its affecting poles, than those islands situated near the equator.' He also suggests, in consequence of observations made at St. Helena and Bencoolen, that the dip of the needle is subject to a diurnal variation in its vertical movement.

Experiments to determine the Density of the Earth. By Henry Cavendish, *Esq.* F. R. S. & A. S.

A method of determining the density of the earth, by rendering sensible the attraction of small quantities of matter, was contrived by the late Rev. John Michell: but his apparatus for this purpose not being completed till a short time before his death, he had no opportunity of making any experiments with it. This apparatus is very simple.

'It consists of a wooden arm, 6 feet long, made so as to unite great strength with little weight. This arm is suspended in an horizontal position, by a slender wire 40 inches long, and to each extremity is hung a leaden ball, about 2 inches in diameter; and the whole is enclosed in a narrow wooden case, to defend it from the wind. As no more force is required to make this arm turn round on its centre, than what is necessary to twist the suspending wire, it is plain that, if the wire is sufficiently slender, the most minute force, such as the attraction of a leaden weight a few inches in diameter, will be sufficient to draw the arm sensibly aside. The weights which Mr. Michell intended to use were 8 inches diameter. One of these was to be placed on one side of the case, opposite to one of the balls, and as near it as could be conveniently done, and the other on the other side, opposite to the other ball, so that the attraction of both

both these weights would conspire in drawing the arm aside; and, when its position, as affected by these weights, was ascertained, the weights were to be removed to the other side of the case, so as to draw the arm the contrary way, and the position of the arm was to be again determined; and, consequently, half the difference of these positions would shew how much the arm was drawn aside by the attraction of the weights.

'In order to determine from hence the density of the earth, it is necessary to ascertain what force is required to draw the arm aside through a given space. This Mr. Michell intended to do, by putting the arm in motion, and observing the time of its vibrations, from which it may easily be computed.'

As soon as the present ingenious author became possessed of this apparatus, he directed that attention to the improvement and use of it, which, on various other occasions, has been laudably employed in the advancement of philosophical science. No person could have been more disposed to apply it to the purposes for which it was designed, nor more capable of accurately and advantageously conducting the experiments for which it is adapted. After having described (with the assistance of suitable figures) the several parts of this curious apparatus, in its altered and improved state; and having specified the manner of using it, so as to avoid the various errors to which the observations made with it are liable; Mr. Cavendish gives a particular account of his numerous experiments, and of the conclusions which he deduced from them. The detail is so minute and so extensive, that no abstract, within our restricted limits, can be rendered interesting to our readers. The result of the whole, however, is exhibited in a table. By a mean of one set of experiments, the density of the earth appears to be 5,48 times greater than that of water; and by a mean of those of another class, it comes out the same: the extreme difference of the results of the 23 observations belonging to this latter class is only ,75; 'so that the extreme results do not differ from the mean by more than ,38, or $\frac{1}{14}$ of the whole; and therefore the density should seem to be determined hereby, to great exactness.'—'It seems very unlikely (says Mr. C.) that the density of the earth should differ from 5,48, by so much as $\frac{1}{14}$ of the whole.'

'According to the experiments made by Dr. Maskelyne, on the attraction of the hill Schehallien, the density of the earth is $4\frac{1}{2}$ times that of water; which differs rather more from the preceding determination,' says Mr. C., 'than I should have expected. But I forbear entering into any consideration of which determination is most to be depended on, till I have examined more carefully how much the preceding determination is affected by irregularities whose quantity I cannot measure.'

The other papers of a mathematical nature, which we have not noticed, admit of no abridgment; and we must, therefore, content ourselves with reciting the titles of them. They are as follow:

On the Roots of Equations. By James Wood, *B.D. Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.*

General Theorems, chiefly Porisms, in the Higher Geometry. By Henry Brougham, *jun. Esq.*

An improved Solution of a Problem in Physical Astronomy; by which swiftly converging Series are obtained, which are useful in computing the Perturbations of the Motions of the Earth, Mars, and Venus, by their mutual Attraction. To which is added an Appendix, containing an easy Method of obtaining the Sums of many slowly converging Series which arise in taking the Fluents of binomial Surds, &c. *By the Rev.* John Hellins, *F. R. S.*

A very elaborate paper.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Medical Histories and Reflections.* Vol. III. By John Ferriar, M. D. Physician to the Manchester Infirmary, &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

OUR medical readers, we doubt not, will receive with satisfaction the information of a new volume from the hand of this ingenious writer. His first topic is that terrible disease the *Rabies Canina*, of which a second case has occurred to him, that seems to have produced some change in his ideas of its nature. An effusion of blood into the substance of the lungs, and the appearance of inflammation in the stomach and œsophagus, (which last he has traced through the descriptions of several writers,) have induced him to consider the Rabies as owing rather to an inflammatory than a spasmodic affection. He has, in consequence, laid down a plan of cure; in which, however, we cannot discern anything that has not been repeatedly tried without success: nor can we flatter ourselves that his researches have thrown any material accession of light on this singular and hitherto incurable malady.

The *Account of the Establishment of Fever-Wards in Manchester* affords a very pleasing example of the success of a plan for the *prevention* of disease; that best, but most neglected, branch of the medical art. The prevalence of infectious fevers in manufacturing towns is a melancholy fact, which many writers, and the present author in particular, have taken laudable pains to place in the view of the public. To prevent them from arising in the first instance, a variety of precautions are

are requisite; and Dr. F. has had the merit of affording much instruction on this head:—but, to prevent the progress of infection once generated, the grand point is *separation*; and it is the accomplishment of this, by the Board of Health at Manchester, which forms the principal subject of this paper. A kind of Fever-hospital, under the popular name of a House of Recovery, has been established in a proper quarter of the town, to which all who are known to fall ill with fevers of the infectious class are immediately conveyed; and the effect of this institution in extinguishing epidemic disease has been truly surprising.—We shall not attempt to abridge this paper, since every part of the detail must be interesting to those whom motives of humanity, and regard to the public good, may excite to similar exertions; and whom, therefore, we would advise to consult the volume itself.

An Affection of the Lymphatic Vessels, hitherto misunderstood, is the subject of the next article. Mr. White of Manchester, several years ago, called the attention of the faculty in this country to a singular swelling of one or both of the lower extremities, sometimes occurring in lying-in women. He clearly discerned this to be owing to a disease of the lymphatics of the part; and he attributed it to the rupture, during labour, of the great lymphatic trunk which on each side passes over the brim of the pelvis. Other writers afterward brought additions to the history and description of this disease, and formed different theories of its cause. Dr. F. here adduces a case of a very similar affection in a *man*; and, generalizing his ideas, he conceives an inflammatory state of the lymphatic system in a part, which may occur from various causes, without being limited as to sex or part of the body. From this notion of the disease, he adopts a practice calculated to unload the sanguineous vessels, and to diminish local and general irritability. He directs the free and repeated application of leeches to the swollen limb, together with a continued use of gentle cathartics; and he proves the success of his method, as well by the event of the case first mentioned, as by that of a woman in whom the attack commenced on the day after delivery.

On the Croup. The purpose of this short paper is to characterize the genuine croup, and strongly to impress the necessity of employing (without delay) the only remedies which are worthy of reliance, *viz.* copious bleeding, emetics, and large blisters on the breast or shoulders.

A still more brief paper *on the Hooping-Cough* ends with recommending, as the most effectual remedy for shortening this tedious disorder, the solution of white arsenic. We cannot but wish that the author had given some details of his own

practice (which he represents as very successful) in this delicate point.

The Use of the Nitrous Acid in Siphylis, and in some other Diseases, is next considered. The general result of the author's experience, in this matter, is that this remedy is capable of removing certain symptoms in the advanced stages of the venereal lues, but that it would scarcely be prudent to trust to it alone. He has never been able to ascertain that the acid has any other action on the salivary organs, than what proceeds from its external application in the act of swallowing. In chronic rheumatism, and as a general tonic, he has found it a valuable medicine.

A section *on the Treatment of the Dying* contains some curious and probably little-known facts, relative to the practices of nurses and other ignorant and prejudiced persons in this particular; and it is worth perusing by all who wish to procure for themselves, or their friends, that last of blessings to poor mortals—*euthanasia*.

The APPENDIX contains two papers. The first, intitled *Advice to the Poor*, was originally drawn up for distribution by the Board of Health, and consists of plain rules directed to the preservation of the manufacturing poor from contagious fevers. The second is a communication from Mr. W. Simmons, surgeon, relative to the use of the *Kali purum* as a caustic in the bite of a mad dog, and of the nitrous acid in *lues venerea*.—A remarkable instance of the fallacy of *report* is given in this communication. Mr. Dent affirmed, in the House of Commons, that 40 cases of hydrophobia had occurred in the Manchester Infirmary within a fortnight. The fact was, that this number of persons *bitten by mad dogs*, real or supposed, had offered, but that *not one* of these was attacked with the hydrophobia. Mr. S. is led, by his own experience, to think that the timely application of the alkaline caustic to the wound is an almost certain preventive.—His cases of the trial of nitrous acid in the Ven. Dis. go to prove that it is capable of curing the *primary*, but that it fails in permanently removing *secondary* symptoms. This, certainly, is a statement very little in its favour.

ART. III. *Illustrations of Sterne*: with other Essays and Verses. By John Ferriar, M. D. 8vo. pp. 314. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

LIKE many others of his profession, Dr. Ferriar has made a happy combination of the literary with the medical character; and after having in various ways instructed, he here aims

aims to amuse, the public. The variety and unusual turn of his reading have already been displayed in certain papers inserted in the Manchester Transactions; particularly in one, pointing out the source of various imitations, or rather plagiarisms, in the writings of Sterne, which excited considerable notice from the curious in literature *. The greater portion of the present volume consists of an augmentation of the Doctor's discoveries on that topic; or rather of a new and more methodical exercise on it, comprising the most material part of the former paper. It is a piece of much entertaining research. The story of Sorlisi, though little connected with the subject, is a good one, and is told with many touches of Sterne's manner.

The second piece, '*Of certain Varieties of Man*,' is chiefly occupied with authorities antient and modern on the existence of pygmies, and of tailed men. Several of its quotations are amusing instances of the extravagancies of fiction and credulity; and the lesson deduced from the whole, inculcating caution in the admission of pretended facts, is a very necessary one to those who form systems on the observations of others.

The *Menippean Essay on English Historians* is a composition not easily characterized; rather too grave to be jocular, and too light to be serious. It is written in that whimsical mixture of verse and prose which some authors of note have occasionally adopted, probably by way of frolic or experiment. Dr. F. is no bad versifier, as the following quotation may shew; at the same time serving as a specimen of the humour of the piece.

> 'From bards, inspir'd by mead, or Celtic beer,
> Burst forth the bloody feud, or vision drear,
> Till each attendant bagpipe squeak'd for fear †:
> They sung how Fin Mac Coul ‡ controll'd the fight,
> Or Merlin rav'd with more than second-sight.
> Down Time's long stream the dying music floats,
> And cheats th' impatient ear with broken notes.
> Lull'd by the murmur, antiquarians snore,
> Of Highland-epics dream, and Druid-lore;
> Or on the seeming steep, and shadowy plain,
> Hunt the glass-castle, or Phenician fane §.

* See Review, Vol. XIII. N. S. p. 183.

'† At thy well-sharpen'd thumb, from shore to shore
The trebles squeak for fear, the bases roar. *Mac Flecknoe.*'

'‡ Fingal.'

'§ *Glass castle.*] Vitrified forts in Scotland; and the celebrated ship-temples in Ireland.'

'Next

'Next doleful ballads troll'd th' immortal theme,
Sung to the car, or whistl'd to the team *:
Tho' wicked wits, from age to age, refuse
The homely ditties of the hob-nail-muse,
Long tost, the sport of mountain-air and winds †,
These P—y comments, and these Edwards binds.
Now from his store each restless rival draws
Rhyme's tarnish'd flowers, blunt points, and rusty saws,
Till our bright shelves, in gilded pride, display
The trash our wiser fathers threw away.
'Our early hist'ry shuns the judging eye,
In convents bred, the urchin learn'd to lie;
White phantoms wave their palms in golden meads,
And the pale school-boy trembles as he reads.
'The later chroniclers, with little skill,
Darkling and dull, drew round th' historic mill,
In wild confusion strow'd, appear the feats
Of shews and battles, duels, balls, and treats;
Here the rich arms victorious Edward bore,
There the round oaths which great Eliza swore;
And quaint devices, justs, and knightly flames,
And gay caparisons, and dainty dames.'

The serious purpose of the essay is to point out the different faults of English historical compositions at various periods. An imitation of Gibbon's manner (we take it for such, though it is not avowed,) is one of the parts which has most pleased us.

The Puppet-Shew, a poem, chiefly translated from Addison's "*Martinæ Gesticulantes*," next occurs. It is not unsuccessfully executed; though some of the elegant humour of the original, consisting in classical phraseology applied in the way of parody, is necessarily lost. Compensation, however, is made by the introduction of modern satire: of which we shall give a specimen.

'Behold Noverre the mimic art restore!
Medea raves and Phædra weeps no more.
Here sense and shew decide their long dispute,
For man turns puppet, and the stage is mute.
Ungraceful Hamlets, awkward Romeos fly!
Let MOTHER GOOSE ‡ more worthy themes supply,
On the vast stage, o'er many an acre spread,
Be lowing herds and num'rous squadrons led;

'*, Sung to the wheel, and sung unto the paile. *Hall's Virgidem.*'

'† ——rapidis ludibria ventis.' VIRG.'

'‡ This passage might very well have been written at the time when the poem is dated; for the entertainment of *Selima and Azor* was taken from the story of *Beauty and the Beast*, in Mother Goose's Tales. The stage is now farther indebted to that learned author.'

While

While BLUE BEARD fierce the fatal key demands,
Or PUSS IN BOOTS acquires the OGRE's lands;
Or fair RED RIDING-HOOD, in luckless hour,
A helpless victim falls to fraud and pow'r.
'Proceed, great days! till poetry expire,
Till Congreve pall us, and till Shakespeare tire;
Till ev'ry tongue its useless art let fall,
And moping Silence roost in Rufus' hall;
Till nimble preachers foot the moral dance,
Till cap'ring envoys check the pow'r of France,
And full St. Stephen's see, with mute surprise,
The Opposition *sink*, and Premier *rise*.'
'But oh! what God inspires my boding mind
To paint the glimm'ring prospect yet behind!
I see in gesture ev'ry wish exprest,
Each art, each science quit the lighten'd breast:
No wand'ring eyes the distant heav'ns explore,
On two legs tott'ring, man descends to four.
Then, great Monboddo, proves thy system true;
Again in caves shall herd the naked crew;
Again the happy savages shall trail
(A long-lost gift!) the graceful length of tail;
In that blest moment, by indulgent heav'n,
Thy wish, Rousseau, and Swift's revenge are given.'

A paper *on Genius* turns on the idea that, in the use of this word to denote a particular faculty of the mind, writers have been led into obscurity by attaching to it something of the mystical notion of *Genii*, or inferior deities, under whose special direction every man has been supposed, according to some theological systems, to be placed. Several learned proofs of the prevalence of this opinion are given; and its connection with inspiration, enthusiasm, and the prophetic spirit, is pointed out.

The topic of a *Dialogue in the Shades, between Lucian and Neodidactus*, is the new or Godwinian philosophy; the moral principles of which are exposed partly to ridicule, and partly to disapprobation of a more serious kind. The dialogue is short, and, we suppose, will not be deemed conclusive by the adepts in the system which it is intended to combat.

Knaster, an Elegy, is a piece of local or personal humour. *Knaster*, it seems, is the name for a kind of German tobacco, smuggled into England.

The concluding piece is an ode, intitled *A Northern Prospect*. The scene is painted from a rock in the neighbourhood of Alnwick castle, and comprises a variety of objects, interesting (doubtless) to the inhabitant who is familiarized to the ideas of the vicinity, but too local for general impression. The poetry is, at least, very tolerable: but, as in most other odes,

odes, the changes of the measure have seldom any peculiar adaptation.

From this brief analysis of the contents of this volume, our readers will judge of the entertainment which they may expect in a perusal of it. We have no doubt that it will be welcome to those who love varied reading; and who may therefore exclaim with Lord Shaftesbury, as quoted by Dr. Ferriar for a motto to his volume: "*Peace be with the soul of that charitable and courteous Author, who, for the common benefit of his fellow-authors, introduced the ingenious way of* Miscellaneous Writing!"

ART. IV. *Asiatic Researches.* Vol. IV. 4to. Printed at Calcutta. [*Art. continued.*]

WE have already given an account of part of this interesting volume, in our Number for June last, vol. xxvi.; and in the following Review, (p. 463,) we informed our readers that a London edition of the work had been published by Messrs. Vernor and Hood, under the title of *Dissertations and Miscellaneous Pieces relating to the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vol. IV.* 8vo. From this edition, we shall now proceed in our abstract; which, by an unavoidable accident, has been too long delayed.

On some extraordinary Facts, Customs, and Practices of the Hindus. By the President. [Sir John Shore.]

Among the Hindus, the person of a *Bráhmen* is inviolate; and to occasion his death, in any way, is accounted a crime which no atonement can expiate:—whence the foundation of the singular practice which formerly was frequent at *Benares*, and which in its effects approaches the nearest to our *caption* or *arrest*. The *Bráhmen*, who adopts this expedient in order to procure redress, proceeds, armed with a dagger or poison, to the door of his adversary's house; where he deliberately sets himself down, and threatens to commit suicide, if the offender should attempt to pass or molest him. He fasts with inflexible rigour, to which the other party likewise submits, and perseveres in his resolution until satisfaction is obtained. The practice of sitting in *Dherna* is not confined to the male *Bráhmens* only; for an instance occurred at *Benares* in 1789, of a widow directing that engine of opinion against her brother-in-law. Both fasted obstinately during thirteen days; when, worn out with hunger, her antagonist at last yielded the contest.

No traces of this extraordinary custom are found in *Bengal*, nor in *Behar*; though even in *Calcutta* it is not unusual for *Bráhmens*

Brâhmens to extort charity from the *Hindus* by posting themselves at the doors, declaring their determination not to retire till their solicitations are granted; and in the *Vizier*'s dominions, they have been successfully employed to recover claims.

Another practice of the *Brâhmens*, equally singular and more cruel, is called erecting a *Koor*. They construct a circular pile of wood, and, placing on it a cow or an old woman, prepare to consume the whole together. The person who should occasion this desperate act is believed to incur a heinous sin; and the object of the rite is to deter the agents of government from urging importunate demands, or levying grievous exactions. The only case of setting up a *Koor*, that occurred for many years, happened near *Benares* in 1788: but the sacrifice was prevented by the timely interposition of authority.

There are a few instances of still more atrocious acts, by which the *Brâhmens* seek to repel injuries, or to wreak their feeble vengeance; as by murdering, with mutual consent, their nearest and most beloved relation, from a persuasion that horror of the deed will redound on the head of their oppressor. Sir John Shore relates three shocking cases of that nature, which, so late as the years 1791 and 1793, came under his cognizance in the province of *Benares*.

In some countries, otherwise admired for their political wisdom, the laws, trusting to the prevalent force of natural affection, have overlooked or permitted the practice of infanticide. Yet such are the pleadings of helpless innocence, that a crime so repugnant to the feelings of a mother is seldom committed but in the most extreme cases. It excites our surprise, therefore, and it rouses our pity and abhorrence, to hear that a whole tribe in the province of *Benares* regularly starve to death their female offspring. The reason alleged by the parent is the utter impossibility of providing their daughters with the portions required in marriage; and their youth seek wives from among the neighbouring and less indigent tribes. The servants of the East India Company have humanely interfered, but have not, we fear, attacked the evil at its source. Wretched indeed must be the condition of that people, in whom the dictates of nature are so completely stifled!—It is consolatory to observe some few exceptions: certain families suffer at least one female child to be reared.

If any of the old cane remains unemployed, the proprietor repairs to the spot previously to the 25th *Jeyte* or 11th of June, and, having sacrificed to *Nogbele*, the tutelar God of that plant, he carefully sets fire to the whole; it being firmly believed by the *ryots* or husbandmen, that, if a single cane should flower

after that term, it would portend the most dreadful calamities to themselves and their families.

When we reflect how loth Europe was to reject the grossest prejudices, we need not wonder that the belief in charms, amulets, sorcery, fascination, and astrology should generally prevail in the east. In the year 1792, among the *Soontaars*, one of the wildest and most unlettered tribes in India, five unhappy women were put to death on a charge of witchcraft. The ordeals of trial are remarkable, and bear some resemblance to those so learnedly described by our sage monarch, James I. in his *Demonology*.

'*First.* Branches of the *Saul* tree, marked with the names of all the females in the village, whether married or unmarried, who have attained the age of twelve years, are planted in the water in the morning, for the space of four hours and a half; and the withering of any of these branches is proof of witchcraft against the person whose name is annexed to it.

'*Secondly.* Small portions of rice enveloped in cloths, marked as above, are placed in a nest of white ants; the consumption of the rice in any of the bags, establishes sorcery against the woman whose name it bears.

'*Thirdly.* Lamps are lighted at night: water is placed in cups made of leaves, and mustard-seed and oil are poured, drop by drop, into the water, whilst the name of each woman in the village is pronounced; the appearance of the shadow of any woman on the water, during this ceremony, proves her a witch.'

The proofs succeeded to the wishes of the prosecutors. The poor females had been frequently surprised at their nightly gambols, dancing naked by the light of a lamp, with a broom tied about their waists. It is not said whether those sportive ladies were old and wrinkled.

A very curious mode of ascertaining the boundaries of property is sometimes practised in *Hindustan*. Two holes are dug in the contested spot, into each of which an old man chosen by either party from the adjacent villages puts his leg, and remains there till he is tired, or complains of being stung by insects; in which case his employer loses the suit.

On the Duties of a faithful Hindu Widow. *By* Henry Colebrooke, *Esq.*

The European compilations on the manners and religion of the Hindus are often replete with error and fable, from the want of judgment in selecting the authorities. The obligation of the widow to ascend the funeral pile of her deceased husband being generally misrepresented, Mr. Colebrooke has taken the pains of collecting, from the antient *Sanscrit* books, all that may tend to elucidate a ritual so extraordinary.

'Having

"Having first bathed, the widow, dressed in two clean garments, and holding some *cúsa* grass, sips water from the palm of her hand. Bearing *cúsa* and *tila* on her hand, she looks towards the east or north while the *Bráhmana* utters the mystic word *Om*. Bowing to *Nerayana*, she next declares: "On this month, so named in such a *Pacsha*, on such a *tit'hi*, I (naming herself and her family) that I may meet *Arundhati* and reside in *Swarga*; that the years of my stay may be numerous as the hairs on the human body; that I may enjoy with my husband the felicity of heaven; and sanctify my paternal and maternal progenitors, and the ancestry of my husband's father; that, lauded by the *Apsarases*, I may be happy with my lord, through the reigns of fourteen *Indras*; that expiation be made for my husband's offences, whether he have killed a *Bráhmana*, broken the ties of gratitude, or murdered his friend; thus I ascend my husband's burning pile. I call on you, ye guardians of the eight regions of the World! Sun, and Moon! Air, fire, æther, earth and water! My own soul! *Yama*! Day, night, and twilight! And thou, conscience, bear witness. I follow my husband's corpse on the funeral pile."

"Having repeated the *Sancalpa*, she walks thrice round the pile; and the *Bráhmana* utters the following *Mantras*;

'Om! Let these women, not to be widowed good wives, adorned with collyrium, holding clarified butter, consign themselves to the fire. Immortal, not childless, nor husbandless, excellent, let them pass into fire, whose original element is water. From the *Rigvéda*.

"Om! Let these wives, pure, beautiful, commit themselves to the fire with their husband's corpse. *A Pauranica Mantra*!"

The last rites are more fully described thus:

'Adorned with all jewels, decked with *minium* and other customary ornaments, with the box of *minium* in her hand, having made *pújá*, or adoration, to the *Dévatás*, thus reflecting that *this life is nought, my Lord and master to me was all*; she walks round the burning pile. She bestows jewels on the *Bráhmanas*, comforts her relations, and shews her friends the attentions of civility; while calling the Sun and Elements to witness, she distributes *minium* at pleasure; and having repeated the *Sancalpa*, proceeds into the flames. There embracing the corpse, she abandons herself to the fire, calling *Satya! Satya! Satya!*'

This sacrifice is not absolutely enjoined, but it is recommended by all the allurements which enthusiasm can invent. There are, however, some cases of exemption. If the widow has an infant child; or if she is pregnant; and, among certain casts, if the husband dies in a distant country,—the ceremony is interdicted. If the woman declines burning, she must thenceforth lead a life of the most rigid austerity, wholly devoted to acts of piety and mortification. If she feels resolution equal to the deed, the son or nearest kinsman of the deceased applies the first torch. The spectators cast wood and butter on the pile, an act esteemed transcendantly meritorious;

and even those who join in the procession are rewarded in heaven for every step of their march. Such liberal immunities are a proof, as Mr. Colebrooke remarks, that burning could never be a frequent practice in the East.

On the Inhabitants of the Hills near RA'JAMAHALL. *By* Lieutenant Thomas Shaw.

This ample paper contains much curious information, but is tedious, devoid of arrangement, and abounding in repetitions. The rude and illiterate people of whom it speaks subsisted chiefly on the plunder of their richer neighbours, till the arrival of Mr. Cleveland among them; who, by his gentle and prudent treatment, happily succeeded in forming them to habits of regular industry. They believe in the Supreme Being, with a number of subordinate divinities. Their Deity, as in some other countries, is clothed with the attributes of an absolute, inflexible, and capricious sovereign. By his express appointment, each event arrives; and Providence is continually at work in dispensing the punishments of the Divine displeasure. Like the rest of the Orientals, they hold the doctrines of metempsychosis. The souls of those who have acted with injustice or cruelty, while sojourning here, are supposed to be sent back on earth to be born of woman, for the chastisement of their sins; and if they were guilty of crimes of great enormity, they are thrust down to herd with the brutes, or even degraded to mingle with the vegetable tribes. Hence the aversion of the natives of the hills from killing a tiger. Suicides are not admitted to heaven, but suspended midway, or condemned to toil with unavailing efforts. Warriors, slain in battle, are welcomed into the presence of God, and fare sumptuously.

Such opinions are salutary, or at least innocent: but, among a simple and credulous race, superstition, directed by the arts of the priesthood, has given rise to practices decidedly pernicious to the interests of society. The *Demauno* or *Dewassy*, of whom there are several in every village, lives by the trade of retailing oracles. The prophet affects superior purity, retains his long hair, drinks the reeking blood of immolated victims, and abstains from beef and milk. His cruel noviciate is here related with a minute prolixity. On the first full-moon of January after his inspiration, the *Demauno* sallies out from his house with all the signs of frenzy, and retires to unfrequented rivers or jungles, where he passes seven or nine days, fed (as he pretends) by the Divine bounty. With the return of reason, the impostor emerges from his retreat, tears up large trees by the roots, and astonishes the populace by his power in working miracles. He holds converse with the God *Bedo Gosaik*,

Gosaih, in the visions of the night. He drives out devils, cures inveterate diseases, and promises wealth, prosperity, and honors to his humble votaries. The pigeon, the cock, and the goat, are the usual sacrifices which he directs.—As a specimen of his priestly functions, we select the following passages:

'The *Chitaria*-festival is held but once in three years. The celebration of it so seldom is, probably, from its being very expensive to the *Maungy*, who bears the charge. It is not every village that has a *Chalnad*, though he is considered as the God that presides over the welfare of villages; but, like RUXEY NAD, he is not supposed to be essential to their happiness, till the inhabitants are harassed by some plague or pestilence; when the *Demauno*, on being consulted, informs the *Maungy* that this Deity is desirous of having a *Nad* raised; that, effecting this, and worshipping him, will put an end to their misfortunes. The *Demauno* then dreams of the place where this shrine is to be found, in the shape of a black stone; he proceeds in the morning to discover it, observing the same forms as are described in obtaining RUXEY NAD; when found, the stone is placed under the shade of a *muckmun*-tree contiguous to the village, and undergoes no alteration in its form from the chissel.

'Among the preparations for the *Chitaria*-festival, the *Maungy* must provide a cow, and a piece of red silk, previous to the day fixed for prayer. The *Satane*, as usual, is performed, to find out what two of the *Maungy*'s vassals will be most acceptable to the god-head to pray. This point being settled, and every thing ready, a day is fixed; on the eve of this holiday, the piece of silk is cut in two, and one part given to one of the wives of each of the preachers, with whom their husbands have not cohabited for ten or fifteen days previously. The *Demauno*, *Maungy*, *Cutwal*, *Phojedar*, *Jemmadars*, and *Bundareens*, having been invited into one of the preachers' houses, the *Demauno* gives water to two *Kalewars*, one *Dolewar*, one *Mangera*, and one *Jelaum*, to wash their hands; and these musicians are taken into the house: a feast is served, of which all present partake, as soon as the chiefs have thrown a little of each dish away, in the name of CHALNAD. I must here digress, to observe, that it is a custom through all the hills, to throw a little of their meat away at every meal, previous to their eating; and the same rule is observed in drinking, the intention of which is to avert any bad consequence from any devil or evil spirit having defiled it. The *Bandareens*, whose particular province it is, at all festivals, to serve out the *toddy*, or spirits, perform that office; and the chiefs, having spilled a little also in the name of CHALNAD for a libation, the party drink and sing all night, in praise of CHITARIAH GOSAIH, invoking his protection, the musicians, or rather drummers, beating at the same time; should any person sing a different song, he is fined a fowl, which is sacrificed, and the blood sprinkled over the whole party; during the course of the night, they patrole the village five times, leading a cow with them; in the morning, the *Demauno*, the two preachers and drummers, proceed to *Chalnad* with the cow; having finished their

prayers, the cow is sacrificed by one of the preachers, in such a manner that the blood may fall on the shrine; a feast is immediately made of the flesh, and all the men who accompanied them from the village, except such as may be disqualified from domestic causes, partake of it. On their return to the village, they send notice of their approach, that the two wives of the preachers, between whom the piece of silk was divided, may take off their clothes and ornaments, and tie the silk round their middles, covering them from their waists, to their knees; their hair is fastened in a knot on the crown of their heads, and every part of their body, which is exposed, is spotted with a mixture made of turmeric, powdered, and the heart, or white part, of *Indian* corn, which is finely ground for that purpose: part of this is also sent to the preachers, that they may be spotted in the same manner, and with it the halves of four mats thus prepared. The two women (the whole village, men, women, and children being assembled to see the procession) set out, one following the other, and taking care not to advance the foot which is up beyond the toe of that on the ground, to meet the preachers, who observe the same pace as their wives; and the mats, as the parties pass over them, are always taken up and placed again before; having passed each other, the women take place behind the men, and follow them by the same step at which they at first set out, to the house of one of the preachers; when arrived, the men taking one side, and the women the other, they wash and change their clothes: Here the ceremony ends; and the preachers, with their wives, are invited to a feast at the *Mamgy*'s.

This is the only festival at which women are permitted to assist. They are taught to ask in private the protection of the Supreme Being, night and morning.

Pow Gosaih, the god of the highway, is the first worshipped by the young men, and this after they have met with some accident in travelling. The offended divinity is appeased by sprinkling the blood of a cock on the *muckmun* branch, and breaking a painted hen's egg.—The next in order is Dewary Gosaih, who presides over the welfare of families. He is treated with a feast, consisting of a hog, rice, distilled spirits, red-paint, and oil. Kull Gosaih, or the Ceres of the mountaineers, is worshipped annually at the time of sowing, and in such manner as the circumstances of the suppliant can best afford. The worship of Goomo Gosaih is likewise attended with some pomp: but that of Chumdaeu Gosaih is so expensive that only Chiefs are his votaries, and not oftener than once in three years.

These mountaineers are said to be in general of a very amorous disposition. The attachment between young lovers is ardent and sincere; and, as in countries in which simplicity prevails, they indulge their passion to a certain extent before marriage. That ceremony is attended with heavy expence. Having obtained the consent of the damsel, and especially

cially that of her parents, the suitor is obliged to make costly presents to them and the relations of the family.—Polygamy is permitted. It is allowed to marry the sister of a deceased wife, or, as under the Mosaic institution, to espouse the widow of a deceased brother.—Adultery is punished by fine.

Witchcraft and sorcery are firmly believed, and a sort of trial by ordeal obtains. The dead are interred with their heads to the north; and to bury the bedstead along with the corpse is an honour purchased by the present of a hog to the *Maungy*. The funeral of a Chief is performed with every circumstance of pomp and magnificence. Of his fortune, one half goes to the male heir; and the other is apportioned among the rest of the family.

Justice was feebly administered among these inhabitants of the hills, and the injured were often obliged to redress themselves by the sword. Theft, nay poisoning, was punished only by fines; and indeed the penalty of every kind of murder was, at the option of the relations of the deceased, commuted into a pecuniary mulct.

As these people live much by hunting, they sacrifice to the god of the chace, and hold a running dog in great estimation. Hospitality is esteemed a virtue, and generally practised: but it is held disrespectful in a peasant to sit in the presence of a Chief, till he is repeatedly desired.

The natives of the hills near Rājamahall are of very low stature, but are stout and well proportioned. They have flat noses and thick lips, though not to the same degree as the Africans. Their agriculture and manufactures are in a very rude state, and they have no other domestic animals than hogs, goats, and fowls; with a few dogs and cats. Their language is equally imperfect; they have no original words to denote numbers beyond two, and borrow from the Hindu the terms as far as twenty. They have no hieroglyphics, nor alphabetic characters. With all this ignorance, however, the authority of their Chiefs is moderate, and no slaves exist among them. They are addicted to spirituous liquors, are of a kind and cheerful disposition, and utterly abhor falsehood. Instances of longevity seem to be rare among them.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. V. Captain Vancouver's *Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean*, &c. &c.

[*Art. continued from p.* 21.]

THE year 1792 is concluded by Captain Vancouver with a relation of the circumstances attending the death of Lieu-

tenant Hergest, the late commander of the Dædalus transport, and of the discoveries made by that officer. Some particulars in this account are well worth notice.

While among the islands called the Marquesas, the Dædalus was discovered to be on fire in the after-part of the hold, near the magazine. The cause of this fire, and the manner in which it was extinguished, afford matter of curious and useful information.—The powder was immediately taken out, and put into a boat alongside.

'At first the fire was supposed to have been occasioned by some oakum, stowed in the fore part of the gun room, taking fire, by accidentally getting wet; since no lights had ever been near it. After a large quantity of provisions had been hoisted up to get out the powder, the smoke was still found to ascend from below; this circumstance, with that of the deck being so hot as not to allow the people keeping their hands upon some lead that was laid upon it, convinced them that the fire must be in the lazaretto below, where some pursers beds were now recollected to have been *very improperly* stowed; and from the seas they had shipped during the tempestuous weather which they had experienced in their passage round Cape Horn, no doubt was entertained that these beds had got wet and had taken fire. Every minute confirming Mr. Hergest in this opinion, care was immediately taken to stop every avenue and crevice about the after hatch-way, to prevent any communication of air before they ventured to scuttle the deck for the purpose of extinguishing the fire by pouring water over it. Happily they had day-light for executing this; and were soon convinced, that the fire had originated as they had last conjectured, from the appearance of the ascending smoke, on scuttling the deck, as also of the good effect of their judicious labours. Other holes were now bored immediately over the beds, and after pouring down large quantities of water, they soon had reason to be gratefully thankful to Divine Providence for so timely and critical a preservation. Some of the beds were entirely consumed; a case on which they were laid, as also the deck over them, were burnt some way into the wood to a black cinder. Little else was stowed with these beds but rum and oil; so that had the fire once broke out into a blaze, the extinguishing it, or preventing its communication with these inflammable substances, would have been morally impossible, and their destruction would have been inevitable.'

Some islands were discovered north of the Marquesas, or rather a continuation of the same groupe; the southernmost of the islands last discovered being in sight of the northernmost of those before known. From these islands, the voyagers met with no other land, until their arrival at the Sandwich Islands.

The death of Lieutenant Hergest, of Mr. Gooch the astronomer, and of one of the seamen, as here related, exhibits a striking instance of wanton barbarity; it being stated that they were murdered while perfectly defenceless on shore among

the natives of Woahoo, and without provocation or any visible circumstance of temptation whatsoever. The generous and intrepid behaviour of three seamen on this occasion is too slightly passed over in the narrative.—The Dædalus had anchored at Woahoo about noon; and Lieutenant Hergest, accompanied by Mr. Gooch, went on shore in the cutter when it was nearly dark.

'The cutter returned, with only five persons instead of the eight who had gone on shore in her, from whom was learned the distressing intelligence, that Mr. Hergest, Mr. Gooch, and two of the boat's crew, having landed unarmed with two of the water casks to fill, their defenceless situation was perceived by the natives, who immediately attacked them, killed one of the people, and carried off the commander and the astronomer. The other being a very stout active man made his escape through a great number of these savages, fled to the boat, and with two others landed again, with two muskets, with the intention to rescue their officers, and to recover the body of their messmate. They soon perceived that both Mr. Hergest and Mr. Gooch were yet alive amongst a vast concourse of the inhabitants, who were stripping them, and forcing them up the hills behind the village: they endeavoured to get near the multitude, but were so assailed by stones from the crowd, who had now gained the surrounding hills, that they were under the painful necessity of retiring; and as night was fast approaching, they thought it most advisable to return on board.'

It is to be hoped that such proofs of attachment towards their commander did not pass unrewarded, though no otherwise noticed in the narrative; where even the names of the men are not mentioned.

We left the Discovery and the Chatham steering from the American coast, towards the Sandwich Islands. They arrived off the eastern part of Owhyhee, February 12th, 1793; when the two vessels separated for the purpose of surveying each a side of the island, it being settled that they should meet again at Karakakooa Bay on the western side. None of the natives came near the Discovery till the next morning, when a canoe paddled from the shore to them. The people in this canoe reported that a general *taboo* (interdiction) had prevented the inhabitants from coming to the ship.

'The taboo had now existed some days, and in the course of a day or two more would cease. These people further informed us, that *Tamaahmaah* was then residing at Karakakooa, and that hogs, and the other refreshments of the island, were prohibited from being disposed of to European or American visitors, under penalty of death, for any other commodities whatever than *arms and ammunition.*

'This is the baneful consequence arising from the injudicious conduct of unrestrained commercial adventurers, who have thought pro-

per to furnish these people, naturally a warlike and daring race, with a large assortment of arms and ammunition; not only rendering them, by these means, a formidable nation; but by thus absurdly and profusely out-bidding each other, bringing the generality of other European commodities into contempt and low estimation.'

These visitors, however, regardless of the taboo, sold a hog and other refreshments for some iron; and it afterward appeared that the Chiefs, when it suited their purposes, scrupled not to dispense occasionally with the restrictions of the taboo, if it was not of a religious nature.

In this part of the voyage, some particulars, which are related respecting the intercourse carried on by the Europeans and Americans with these islands, are of too singular a nature to be passed without comment.—February 18th, the two vessels joined on the west side of Owhyhee, and were soon afterward visited by Tamaahmaah, the king of the island, attended by John Young, an English seaman, who appeared to be a great favourite, and to possess considerable influence with the Chief. Young had been boatswain of an American snow, called the Eleanor, mounting 10 guns and navigated by 55 men, partly Americans and partly Chinese. The commander, Mr. Metcalf, also fitted out a schooner to accompany him, which was navigated by his son and five men. This vessel, which had been originally only a pleasure-boat, was named the Fair American. They sailed from China in 1789, and the Fair American was detained by the Spaniards at Nootka, but the Eleanor went to the Sandwich Islands.

'Young stated, that in February 1790, they proceeded to Mowee, where a boat belonging to the snow, with one man in her, was stolen by the natives from the stern of the vessel; and, on a reward being offered for the boat and the man, Mr. Metcalf was informed, that the former was broken to pieces, and that the latter had been killed. The bones of the man were then demanded, which, with the stem and stern-post of the boat, were carried on board the snow in about three days. The natives in the mean time had continued to trade with the crew; and after delivering up the remains of the man, and parts of the boat, they supposed the anger of those on board was entirely appeased, and demanded of Mr. Metcalf the reward he had offered. This, Mr. Metcalf replied, they should soon have, and immediately ordered all the guns to be loaded with musket balls, and nails; and having *tabooed* one side of the ship in order to get all the canoes on the starboard side, next the shore, the ports were hauled up, and the guns fired amongst the canoes. The guns between decks, being nearly upon a level with the canoes, did great execution, as did the small arms from the quarter-deck and other parts of the ship. On this occasion, Young represented that upwards of an hundred were killed, and a great many were wounded.

'Having thus taken such revenge as he considered equivalent to the injury received, Mr. Metcalf quitted Mowee.'

From

From Mowee they sailed to Owhyhee, where they were apparently on good terms with the natives. On the eve of their departure, the Eleanor being then under sail, Young had leave to stay on shore till the next day, when the vessel stood in and fired a gun as a signal for him to return: but, to his surprise, the canoes were all tabooed. The cause of this, he learnt, was, that the schooner Fair American, commanded by the younger Mr. Metcalf, had arrived from the coast of America on the west side of Owhyhee, where she had been surprised and captured by the natives, and that the crew, one seaman excepted, had been killed by them. The Chief who commanded the islanders gave as a reason for this act, that he had been beaten and otherways ill-used by the father of the unfortunate young man. The natives in this attack were unarmed, but threw the crew overboard. The mate, Davis, an Englishman, being a good swimmer, got into one of their canoes, where they beat him till they were tired. 'After a short respite he recovered a little, and looking up to the most active of the party, said "*mytie, mytie,*" signifying "good;" the man instantly replied "*arrowhah,*" meaning, that he pitied him, and instantly saluted him by touching noses, gave him some cloth, and assisted him to wipe and bind up his wounds. After this he had no other injury offered to him.'

The whole of this business appears to have been transacted without the knowlege of the King, who afterward took the survivor, Davis, under his own protection, but would not permit Young to rejoin his vessel; lest, like the Indians, and as Mr. Metcalf himself had formerly done, he should again seek to revenge himself indiscriminately on the innocent as well as the guilty. The Eleanor stood off and on during two days, firing guns; after which she sailed from the island without having learnt the fate of the other vessel.

Young and Davis had at this time been nearly three years in the service of Tamaahmaah. They had endeavoured to make their escape on board a trading vessel, and had been prevented: but such was the opinion which the natives entertained of their friendship for each other, that, when any vessels arrived, either was allowed to go singly wherever he pleased; the detention of the other being esteemed a sufficient security for his return. They now shewed no inclination to quit the King of Owhyhee, and were each possessed of estates and houses. On the other islands, likewise, were found Americans and Europeans, settled in the service of the Chiefs, and who acted as their agents with the trading vessels.

The character of Tamaahmaah appears to great advantage, even when not contrasted with the savage manners of others of

of his countrymen. Besides the kind treatment and protection experienced by Young and Davis, he had secured the captured schooner, and laid her up, with the declared intention of returning her, if ever demanded by the owner. Our navigators likewise experienced from him the most hospitable and friendly reception.

The foregoing is neither the only instance of a trading vessel being captured by the Sandwich Islanders, nor of unpardonable outrage committed by some of the commanders: as we shall have occasion to observe in the sequel.

When the ships were nearly ready for sea, a grand entertainment was given by the King of Owhyhee, at which, besides many other formalities, was represented a battle. In some particulars of this representation, we see a striking resemblance to the manners of the antients. The arms used were wooden lances or javelins, blunted for the occasion; with long spears, by the natives called *pallaloo*, which were never to be quitted but in case of death or defeat; and the performance began by the opposed parties advancing towards each other with reproachful speeches and gestures, and then throwing the lances. The following instance of dexterity will doubtless excite the admiration of our readers:

'In this exercise no one seemed to excel his Owhyhean majesty, who entered the lists for a short time, and defended himself with the greatest dexterity, much to our surprise and admiration; in one instance particularly, against six spears that were hurled at him nearly at the same instant; three he caught as they were flying, with one hand, two he broke by parrying them with his spear in the other, and the sixth, by a trifling inclination of his body, passed harmless'!!!—

'The consequences attendant on the first man being killed, or being so wounded as to fall on the disputed ground between the contending armies, were next exhibited.

'This event causes the loss of many lives and much blood, in the conflict that takes place in order to rescue the unfortunate individual, who, if carried off by the adverse party dead or alive, becomes an immediate sacrifice at the morai.'

Thus far the performance was without much regularity, but

'The warriors who were armed with the *pallaloos*, now advanced with a considerable degree of order, and a scene of very different exploits commenced; presenting, in comparison to what before had been exhibited, a wonderful degree of improved knowledge in military evolutions. This body of men, composing several ranks, formed in close and regular order, constituted a firm and compact phalanx, which in actual service, I was informed, was not easily to be broken. Having reached the spot in contest, they sat down on the ground about thirty yards asunder, and pointed their *pallaloos* at each other. After a short interval of silence, a conversation commenced, and *Taia* was supposed to state his opinion respecting peace and war.

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The arguments seemed to be urged and supported with equal energy on both sides. When peace under certain stipulations was proposed, the *pallaloos* were inclined towards the ground, and when war was announced, their points were raised to a certain degree of elevation. Both parties put on the appearance of being much upon their guard, and to watch each other with a jealous eye; whilst this negociation was going forward; which, however, not terminating amicably, their respective claims remained to be decided by the fate of a battle. Nearly at the same instant of time they all arose, and, in close columns, met each other by slow advances. This movement they conducted with much order and regularity, frequently shifting their ground, and guarding with great circumspection against the various advantages of their opponents; whilst the inferior bands were supposed to be engaged on each wing with spears and slings.'

The whole account of this exhibition is very entertaining, and, if nothing more were known of these islanders, would sufficiently evince that they are a hardy and warlike people. Many hurts and slight wounds were received in the course of these exercises, which were borne with the utmost cheerfulness and good-humour.

The following are the most remarkable of the other customs which we find noticed among them. Captain Vancouver, when he quitted Karakakooa Bay, intending to anchor for a short time at another part of Owhyhee, Tamaahmaah, the King, sent Young and Davis to attend him thither; as he might not 'absent himself from Karakakooa until certain ceremonies had taken place, in consequence of his having celebrated the festival of the new year in this district; and of his having transgressed the law by living in such social intercourse with us, who had eaten and drank in the company of women.' —A prevailing custom, after having been any time at sea, was, to wash themselves in fresh water, immediately on their return to the shore: but whether for their own personal comfort, or in obedience to some religious ordinance, does not appear.—It is a strong proof of the ingenuity of these people, that they hold armourer's tools in high estimation, and with them manufacture iron for their several purposes, after their own fashion.

Captain Vancouver had long meditated on the means of obtaining satisfaction, as far as it could be afforded by the punishment of the offenders, for the murder of the unfortunate commander of the Dædalus and his companions at Woahoo. He had heard at Owhyhee, that three of the principal offenders had been put to death by the orders of Titeeree who was sovereign of Mowee, Woahoo, and all the smaller islands to leeward: but this account had been directly contradicted by the Chiefs of Owhyhee, who represented that 'Mr. Ingraham, commanding the American brig Hope, on some misunderstanding with

with *Titeeree* and *Taio*, had fired several shot at them as they went from his vessel to the shore; and that in consequence of this treatment, those Chiefs had given directions to the inhabitants of all the islands under their authority, to kill every white man they should meet with, whether English, American, or of any other nation.'—It must be observed, however, that the Chiefs of Owhyhee, when they related the case in this manner, were endeavouring to persuade Captain Vancouver to assist them in attempting a conquest of the other islands.

On leaving Owhyhee, the vessels steered for Mowee; and immediately on their arrival, a Chief, who was brother to the King, visited them. He insisted that, so far from the murders having been premeditated and committed for the purpose of revenging a difference between them and Mr. Ingraham, the transaction had happened wholly without the knowlege and much to the displeasure of the Chiefs. All the circumstances being considered by Captain Vancouver, he thought it most probable that the principal people were not in any way concerned in the perpetration of the murders: but, says he, 'I now came to a determination of insisting with Titeeree, that the remaining offenders should be brought to justice, not by any measures of force in our power, but by their own means.'

At the first interview with Titeeree, after some conversation on the subject of a peace between Owhyhee and the other Islands, Captain Vancouver relates:

'I demanded of *Titeeree*, what offence had been committed by the late Mr. Hergest, and Mr. Gooch, to occasion their having been put to death? To this question they all replied, that neither of those gentlemen, nor any other person belonging to the Dædalus, had, to their knowledge, been guilty of any offence whatever. I then requested to know, what was the reason of their having been murdered without any provocation on their part; and who was the Chief that gave orders for that purpose, or that was by any other means the cause of their losing their lives? This question was also answered by the solemn declaration of the whole party, that there was no Chief present on that melancholy occasion; nor was any Chief in the least degree concerned; but that the murder was committed by a lawless set of ill-minded men; and that the instant *Titeeree* had become acquainted with the transaction, he had ordered all those who had been principally concerned to be put to death; and in consequence of his directions, three of the offenders had suffered that punishment. I then desired to know if three people only had been concerned? The king then replied, that many were present at the time, but that only three or four more were concerned in the murder; who would likewise have suffered death, had they not found means to escape to the mountains, where they had secreted themselves for some time; but that he understood they had returned, and were now living in or near an estate belonging to *Tomohomoho*. These protestations corresponding

with the evidence before related, induced me to give credit to the asserted innocence of the Chiefs, and the guilt of the persons criminated by them. As punishment ought to fall on those alone, I demanded that three or four, who were known to have been principals in the horrid act, should be sought, and punished according to the heinousness of their crime; not by us, but by themselves, without the least interference on our part. And that the punishment of the murderers might be made as public and impressive as possible, I recommended that it should take place alongside of the ship, in the presence of the natives.'

These propositions being settled, the King's brother undertook to accompany the ships to Woahoo, to secure the persons of the offenders; and an English seaman, James Coleman, who had left an American trader and entered into the service of Titeeree, was likewise sent to assist. At Woahoo, the affair was represented by one of the Chiefs of that island in the following manner:—That Lieutenant Hergest and Mr. Gooch, after having left directions with the people of the boat, went from the sea-side up to the habitations of the natives, who behaved to them in a friendly manner:—that,

'While the gentlemen were absent, a dispute arose at the watering place, between the natives and the people of the Dædalus, from which an affray ensued, and the Portuguese seaman was killed. That no harm or molestation had been offered, or was intended, towards those gentlemen, who were treated civilly by the people of the village, until the news of this unfortunate transaction arrived; when, to prevent revenge taking place, it was thought necessary to put to death the Chiefs whom they then had in their power; and that, in pursuance of this horrid resolution, Mr. Gooch was instantly killed by being stabbed through the heart with a *pahooa*; that the first blow only wounded Mr. Hergest, who, in endeavouring to make his way towards the boat, was knocked down by a large stone hitting him on the side of his head, and was then murdered in a most barbarous manner. The man who stabbed Mr. Gooch, the one who first wounded Mr. Hergest, and another who had been principally concerned at the watering place, had been, he said, apprehended by *Titeeree*'s orders, and been put to death.'

Coleman likewise affirmed that he had heard the story related in the same manner, and that he believed it to be a true statement. With respect to the parties accused, it appeared that the authority of the King's brother was not sufficient for him to venture to apprehend them: but he inveigled three men to go off with him in a canoe to the ship, and, when he arrived on board, pointed them out to Captain Vancouver as the guilty persons;—they were accordingly taken into the ship and confined. After a long examination, in which the testimony of the Chiefs directly charged the prisoners with being guilty, and which was constantly denied by them;

'Neither myself nor my officers (says Capt. V.) discovered any reason, from the result of this further examination, to retract or alter our former opinion of their guilt, or of delivering them over to their own people, to be dealt with according to the directions of their Chief.

'Before they went from the ship, they were placed in irons on the quarter-deck; where, in the presence of all the ship's company, I recapitulated the crime which they had committed, the evidence that had been adduced against them, and the condemnation of their Chiefs, and stated the punishment that was now to be inflicted. All this was likewise made known to the Indian spectators who were present.

'That the ceremony might be made as solemn and as awful as possible, a guard of seamen and marines were drawn up on that side of the ship opposite to the shore, where, alongside of the ship, a canoe was stationed for the execution. The rest of the crew were in readiness at the great guns, lest any disturbance or commotion should arise. One ceremony however remained yet to be performed. One of these unfortunate men had long hair; this it was necessary should be cut from his head before he was executed, for the purpose of being presented, as a customary tribute on such occasions, to the king of the island. I was shocked at the want of feeling exhibited by the two Chiefs at this awful moment, who in the rudest manner not only cut off the hair, but, in the presence of the poor suffering wretch, without the least compassion for his situation, disputed and strove for the honor of presenting the prize to the king. The odious contest being at length settled, the criminals were taken one by one into a double canoe, where they were lashed hand and foot, and put to death by *Tennavee*, their own Chief, who blew out their brains with a pistol; and so dexterously was the melancholy office performed, that life fled with the report of the piece, and muscular motion seemed almost instantly to cease.'

It is to be remarked that Tennavee was not the Chief of Woahoo, though no doubt a man of considerable importance. The eldest son of Titeeree was the Chief of Woahoo, and during the whole of this business he did not come near the ships, though much invited, but pleaded illness.

There appears in the relation of this transaction, and in the transaction itself, a degree of embarrassment and confusion which renders the different parts irreconcileable with each other. Captain Vancouver declares a determination, in the beginning, that 'the offenders should be brought to justice, *not by any measures of force in our power, but by their own means:*'—'*not by us, but by themselves, without the least interference on our part;*' and he seems to have been satisfied that he *delivered them over to their own people to be dealt with according to the directions of their Chief.* Nevertheless, the men were apprehended and kept in confinement by Captain Vancouver; the *trial*, or rather examination, was on board the ship, and not by the natives; and the sentence was contrived and the execution directed by himself: their own people having no otherwise assisted than in decoying

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ing them on board, and discharging the office of executioners; which, though not performed *in the ship*, was accomplished close under her guns. The motives by which Captain Vancouver was guided were, doubtless, a desire of impressing the islanders with an idea that our countrymen were not to be injured with impunity, and the belief that the terror of an example would have a powerful effect in deterring them in future from the commission of such outrages:—but many circumstances seem not to have been sufficiently considered. The latter account of the murder of Lieutenant Hergest and Mr. Gooch is wholly different from the first relation. It appears clearly that their death was not premeditated, and that no injury to them was intended, until the affray took place near the boat, by which a seaman was killed. The examples of revenge which had recently been given by Mr. Metcalf, of the Eleanor, might justify the natives in their determination not to allow the Lieutenant to return to his ship. It is proper also to notice here, that, though Captain Vancouver wished the execution of the three condemned men to be as public as possible, yet very few of the natives were present; and on inquiring the reason from one of the Chiefs, he was answered that it was owing to the suspicions created by the former conduct of Europeans, on disputes or misunderstandings taking place between the Chiefs and the commanders. Some of these, under the pretext of re-established friendship, would prevail on many of the inhabitants to come off to their ships, where they would, as usual, enter into trade with the natives, until great numbers were assembled; the commanders then ordered them to be fired upon, which continued, without mercy, as long as any of the canoes were within shot. *Tomohomoho* stated, that two or three instances of this barbarous nature had taken place, as well by the English as the American traders.' The natural effect of such detestable conduct must be, that the killing a white man could scarcely be considered by the natives as a criminal act; and though Mr. Hergest was of a very humane disposition, yet the natives could know nothing of him but that he was a white man. The three most culpable of the natives had been executed, (at least so Captain Vancouver believed,) by order of the King; though, from the foregoing account of the behaviour of Europeans, such a measure was little to be expected. In the examination of the three men brought to Captain Vancouver, there appeared strong presumptive proofs of their being all concerned,—but these did not amount to certainty. Captain Vancouver says, in describing the execution; 'the whole of Tennavee's deportment, on this sad occasion, afforded us additional cause to believe, that the persons executed

cuted were wholly guilty of the murder, and that the Chiefs had not punished the innocent to screen themselves.' One of the sufferers had been accused of being the murderer of Mr. Hergest: but against the other two, there appear to have been only general accusations. If one was judged to have been more guilty than the rest, there would have been a graceful propriety in pardoning the other two; and the terror inspired by the execution would then have been qualified with a degree of approbation.

After the execution was over, the Captain was solicited to visit the Chief Trytooboory on shore: but this he judged it prudent to decline. By repeated invitations and presents, the Chief was at last induced to come on board. 'I requested (says Captain Vancouver) the favour of his company below; to this with much pleasure he assented, but no sooner were his intentions known to the natives in the canoes about the ship, than a general alarm took place, and he was earnestly recommended not to quit the deck; from a suspicion, as I imagined, amongst the crowd, that the works of death were not yet finally accomplished.' The Chief, however, persisted in going down into the cabin; and Captain V. afterward adds, 'I had the happiness of hearing him confirm every part of the evidence that had been given against the three unfortunate wretches who had suffered in the morning.'

Captain Vancouver strenuously endeavoured to make the Chiefs of Owhyhee and the Chiefs of these islands sensible of the superior blessings of peace, instead of being perpetually at war, and aiming at conquest over each other; and he believed himself so far successful, as to have put them in a method of adjusting their differences by negociation.

The extraordinary nature of the transactions at the Sandwich Islands has occasioned us to detain the reader longer on this part of the voyage than we otherwise had intended: but we shall now hasten to attend the navigators in the farther prosecution of their survey of the American coast. The ships left the islands on the 30th of March, and on the 26th of April were in sight of Cape Mendocino on the coast of New Albion. May 2d, they anchored in Porto de la Trinidada, latitude 41° 3′ N. Here they took in wood and water: but as a harbour, or a place affording shelter for shipping, they found it to be very inferior to what they had expected from the description given in the Journal of Don Francisco Maurelli; a translation of which has been presented to the public by the Hon. Daines Barrington. The identity of the port, Captain Vancouver says, could not be doubted; for

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'In an excursion made by Mr. Menzies to the hill composing the projecting head land, that forms the north-west side of the bay, he found, agreeably with Senr. Maurelli's description, the cross which the Spaniards had erected on their taking possession of the port; and though it was in a certain state of decay, it admitted of his copying the following inscription:

'CAROLUS III. DEI. G. HYSPANIARUM. REX.'

At Trinidada, they found an Indian village, and the natives visited the ships. They were of a lower stature than any tribe of Indians before seen by our voyagers, but stoutly made.

'Amongst these people, as with the generality of Indians I had met with, some mutilation, or disfiguring of their persons, is practised, either as being ornamental, or of religious institution, or possibly to answer some purpose of which we remain ignorant. At Trinidad the custom was particularly singular, and must be attended with much pain in the first instance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both sexes were, by some process, ground uniformly down, horizontally, to the gums; the women especially, carrying the fashion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level; and ornamented their lower lip with three perpendicular columns of punctuation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three-fifths of the lip and chin. Had it not been for these frightful customs, I was informed that amongst those who visited our party on shore the last day, there were, amongst the younger females, some who might have been considered as having pretensions to beauty.'

From Porto de la Trinidada, they proceeded northward, and on the 20th of May anchored in Nootka; where they stopped only three days. The Spaniards were increasing their fortifications at this place, but they gave every assistance in their power for the accommodation of the two ships. The most remarkable occurrence noticed during their short stay here was a treaty of marriage, which was in agitation between the son and daughter of two Indian Chiefs; and of which the following account is given:

'When we were last here I had understood, that *Maquinna's* eldest child, being a daughter named *Ahpienis*, had in the course of the last summer been proclaimed as the successor to the dominions and authority of *Maquinna* after his death; and had about that time been betrothed to the eldest son of *Wicananish*, the chief of a very considerable district in the neighbourhood of Clayoquot and Nittinat.

'This chief with his son, attended by a considerable retinue, came in form to *Maquinna's* residence, now situated without the sound on the sea shore, about a league to the westward of this cove; where, after presenting an assortment of certain valuable articles, he had demanded *Maquinna's* daughter. The considerations on this dower caused great consultation and many debates. At some of these a few of the officers of the Discovery were present, who understood, that the

compliment was deemed inadequate to the occasion; but on the forenoon of the 23d, I was informed, that matters between the two fathers were finally adjusted to the satisfaction of both parties, and that *Wicananish*, with his suite, had returned to Clayoquot; but that *Aliemis* was still to reside some time longer at Nootka. Her youth, most likely, as she did not then exceed ten or twelve years of age, was the reason for postponing the nuptials.'

May the 26th, they arrived in Fitzhugh's Sound, and recommenced their examination at the part at which it had been discontinued in the preceding year. The survey now made, in most of its circumstances, resembled the former. They found the same kind of broken coast, with inlets and channels almost innumerable; and the same extraordinary depth of water close to the shores, and in places inclosed all round with land. One instance occurs, in which, in a channel only a mile in width, 'they traversed repeatedly from shore to shore without finding bottom with 185 fathoms of line, though within half a ship's length of the rocks.'—From the end of May to the 21st of September, the time occupied in this year by the northern survey, they advanced but little more than four degrees northward, leaving off between the 56th and 57th degree of north latitude. The greater part of the survey was, as formerly, performed in boats; in which, besides the hardships of being continually exposed to the weather, our people ran great risks from the dispositions of the natives; the behaviour of some of the tribes which they met being extremely ferocious. In a place named Fisher's Canal, the natives offered for sale the skin of the animal which produces their wool, and of which the following description is given:

'The skins appeared evidently too large to belong to any animal of the canine race, as we had before supposed. They were, exclusively of the head or tail, fifty inches long; and thirty-six inches broad, exclusively of the legs. The wool seemed to be afforded but in a small proportion to the size of the skin. It is principally produced on the back and towards the shoulders, where a kind of crest is formed by long bristly hairs, that protrude themselves through the wool, and the same sort of hair forms an outer covering to the whole animal, and intirely hides the wool, which is short, and of a very fine quality. All the skins of this description that were brought to us were intirely white, or rather of a cream colour; the pelt was thick, and appeared of a strong texture, but the skins were too much mutilated to discover the kind of animal to which they had belonged.'

In one of the most intricate parts of their navigation, they met three English vessels. The intelligence imparted to Captain Vancouver by Mr. Brown, who commanded them, is the most important matter relative to the object of the voyage, that occurred during the season:

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'He very obligingly communicated to me every information he had been able to obtain. The principal circumstance was that of his having sailed up a large opening, whose southern entrance was in latitude 54° 45'.

'This is probably the same as that laid down in Senr. Caamaño's chart, named *Estrecho de Almirante Fuentes*. Mr. Brown found it extend to the north-westward, with several arms branching from it in various directions to the latitude of 56° 20'; where, in a south-westerly direction, it again communicated with the north pacific. He had understood, from the natives, that there was in this neighbourhood a very extensive inland navigation, communicating with a sea to the northward, that employed the inhabitants nearly three months in reaching its extent, where they traded for whale oil, sea-otter skins, and other marine productions. This inland navigation Mr. Brown supposed to be in an extensive arm, lying from hence towards the N. N. E. about nine leagues distant; the entrance of which he had visited, and found it spacious and large, but had not penetrated any distance into it. At its south-east point of entrance a small branch extended to the south-eastward, up which he proceeded with his sloop and schooner about six miles, where they anchored before a village of the natives.'

Two days after the receipt of this information, they arrived at the entrance of an opening in the continental shore, which they believed to be the one described by Mr. Brown. The account of the coast and of the survey is here not sufficiently intelligible: but perhaps it was not possible to make it wholly clear. Captain Vancouver speaks of a number of openings seen, in the following manner: 'The branch of the inlet we were now navigating was not of greater width, nor did it appear likely to become more extensive, than that to the westward of us just discovered. This made it uncertain which to consider as the main branch. Four other openings had been passed on the eastern shore, whose extent had not yet been ascertained.' It is evident that, on the plan laid down for the survey, every branch should (in its turn) be regarded as the main branch, till experience had proved the contrary. This part of the narrative is defective in method: but the word *yet*, in the preceding extract, implies that it was not intended that any opening should be passed unexamined. On applying to the charts, we see the line of continuation unbroken, except by two or three rivers, which are represented as not affording any reasonable prospect of a navigable communication; and no one of the channels, which they explored, carried them far in an easterly direction. In this service, Captain Vancouver was absent from the ship, examining with the boats, at one time 23 days, having traversed from their outset to their return above 700 geographical miles. The Captain's boat was

attacked by a party of Indians, and two of his men were wounded. On this occasion, an old woman, in one of the Indian canoes, gave directions, encouraged them to the attack, and seemed to be their principal leader. Indeed, the situation of our people was at one time extremely perilous, and principally owing to their own neglect.

'But, (says Capt. V.) having been so long accustomed to a series of tranquil intercourse with the several different tribes of Indians we had met with, our apprehensions of any molestation from them were totally done away; and that attentive wariness which had been the first object of my concern on coming amongst these rude nations, had latterly been much neglected. For although we had now more arms than we were provided with during the preceding summer, namely, two wall-pieces cut short for the purpose of being more handy in the boats, each of which was loaded with a dozen pistol balls, yet these as well as some of our muskets, had been so neglected by disuse, that they were unserviceable on this pressing emergency.'

The launch, under the direction of Lieutenant Swaine, had fortunately been more on its guard against the natives, and came up very opportunely to the Captain's assistance.

A similar instance of female authority had been observed among the natives, a few days before, in a party which, including one woman with a lip-ornament, consisted of 16 or 18 persons.

'This woman, as well as the other we had seen on the 27th, steered the canoe. She appeared to be a most excessive scold, and to possess great authority. She had much to say respecting the whole of their transactions, and exacted the most ready obedience to her commands, which were given in a very surly manner, particularly in one instance to a man in the bow of the canoe; who, in compliance to her directions, immediately made a different disposition of the spears. These had all lain on one side of him, just pointed over the bow of the canoe, with several things carelessly lying over them; but, on his receiving her commands, the outer ends were projected further, their inner ends cleared of the lumber that was over them, and the whole, amounting to about a dozen, were equally divided, and regularly laid on each side of him.'

While Captain Vancouver was absent on this survey, another party, with two boats, went to examine some openings to the eastward, which had been passed in the ships. As channels in this direction are of the most importance to the main object of their survey, we think it necessary to take notice of a river discovered in 55° N. latitude, in a shoal bay on the eastern side of the entrance of an arm of the sea, by Captain V. named Observatory Inlet. The river is described to be a small opening in a shallow bank, not exceeding in width a ship's length: but the water had suddenly deepened from five feet to two

and five fathoms, and through this narrow entrance the tide, both flood and ebb, rushed with great force. At the latter part of the ebb, however, the water was perfectly fresh, though not more than four miles from the main arm of the sea.

Captain Vancouver observes that this small river, and another in Port Essington, (an account of which is given vol. ii. p. 315, 316.) 'are the only two streams that had yet been discovered to the north of the river Columbia.'

'These (he says) are too insignificant to be dignified by the name of rivers, and in truth scarcely deserve the appellation of rivulets; but should it hereafter be thought expedient, in support of the late prevailing conceits, and to establish the pretended discoveries of De Font, De Fonta, or De Fuentes, that one of these brooks should be considered as the Rio de los Reys leading into lake Bell, I must beg leave to premise, that neither of their entrances will be met with under the parallels of 43, 53, or 63 degrees of north latitude; these being the several different positions assigned to the entrance of this most famous Rio de los Reys, *by speculative closet navigators.*

'Had any river or opening in the coast existed near either the 43d or 53d parallel of north latitude, the plausible system that has been erected, would most likely have been deemed perfect; but, unfortunately for the great ingenuity of its *hypothetical projectors*, our *practical labours* have thus far made it totter; the position of the former stream, seen by Mr. Whidbey, falling into Port Essington, being in latitude 54° 15′; that of the latter, in latitude 54° 59′; neither of which will correspond with any of the positions above-mentioned.'

This kind of language provokes comment; and though we can safely profess ourselves to be but little sanguine in our expectations of a N. W. passage, we nevertheless see fair occasion to remark that, in the opening examined by Mr. Johnstone in latitude 54° 59′ N. the sudden increase of depth from five feet to two and five fathoms, and the rapidity of the tides, both flood and ebb, are circumstances which amount to a very strong presumption of a navigable channel into the river. With respect to the *pretended discoveries of De Font*, or any other uncertain accounts of discoveries, many who wish them verified will think that a belief in their existence is a very useful qualification in those who undertake to ascertain the truth concerning them.

The extent of Capt. V.'s progress northward has been mentioned; and the account of his labours, in this his second season, adds considerably to our knowlege of the customs and dispositions of the natives.

'Here they met another small party of the natives, consisting of seven men only, who seemed to be prepared to oppose their landing. Their canoes were lodged close to them, near a miserable small hut. After they had put on their war garments, they advanced to meet the

boat; one of them was armed with a musket, and another with a pistol; these they cocked, whilst the other five, each provided with a bow, and plenty of arrows, had them in readiness for immediate service. Beside these, an elderly person made his appearance at a little distance; he was without any weapon, or his war garment, and whilst he made long speeches, he held in one hand the skin of a bird, and with the other plucked out the young feathers and down, which, at the conclusion of certain sentences in his speech, he blew into the air. These actions being considered by Mr. Whidbey and his party as overtures of peace, they threw some spoons and other trivial articles to the orator, and gave him to understand that they wanted something to eat. This had the desired effect; for this pacific individual ordered those who were armed to retire, and some salmon was soon brought. He now directed the boats to come to the rocks, where he delivered them the fish, and he received in return such articles as appeared to be highly acceptable, still continuing to blow the down into the air, as he plucked it from the bird's skin.'

After the 20th of September, they returned to the southward, keeping at a distance from the continent, and to the westward of the land named Queen Charlotte's Islands. On the 5th of October, they anchored at Nootka; whence, continuing to the southward, they called at Port St. Francisco, and at Monterrey:—but it now appeared to Captain Vancouver that the attentions and friendly disposition of the Spaniards had been quite exhausted in the preceding year. His reception was such as convinced him that he was not a welcome visitor; and he therefore left these places, and continued to the southward, keeping the American shore in sight. At other Spanish settlements near the sea-coast, he experienced more friendly treatment, and obtained such supplies as he wanted.

This part of America is represented as a most fruitful country, very thinly inhabited. 'The number of the natives, at this period, who were said to have embraced the Roman Catholic persuasion under the discipline of the Franciscan and Dominican orders of missionaries of New Albion, and throughout the peninsula of California, amounted to about twenty thousand, and they were estimated at an eighth or tenth of the whole native population of those countries.' The whole of the military establishment in this extent of territory is said not to exceed 400 men.

'The natives (says Captain Vancouver) are not, nor can they be rendered tributary, because they possess no tribute to offer.' This is making very little account of a country which is fertile almost beyond example, and of which the coasts abound with sea-otters. All the labour of the natives who are subject to the Spanish jurisdiction is under the immediate direction and control of the missionaries, who act wholly under the

the authority of the Spanish government. Besides, we are told by M. de la Pérouse that it was the plan of the Viceroy of Mexico to reserve for government the exclusive trade of sea-otter skins; of which, that unfortunate navigator says, the Spanish settlements furnish 10,000 annually, and are capable of furnishing, if the Spaniards choose to be at the trouble of collecting them, 50,000 annually. This surely may be esteemed as tribute.

Some of Captain Vancouver's political ideas concerning New Albion are rather too profound:

'Should the ambition of any civilized nation tempt it to seize on these unsupported posts, they could not make the least resistance, and must inevitably fall to a force barely sufficient for garrisoning and securing the country; especially that part which I have comprehended under the denomination of New Albion, whose southmost limits lie under the 30th degree of north latitude. Here the coast, washed by the waters of the pacific, is not more than 30 leagues, (if so much,) from the shores under the same parallel, nearly at the head of the gulph of California. This pass, being once well secured by any power, determined to wrest New Albion from the Spanish monarchy, would inevitably prevent an army by land from coming to the support of the present possessors, or to the annoyance of an invading enemy.'

In another place he observes,

'From their dominions in New Spain they have stocked this frontier country with such an abundance of cattle of all descriptions, that it is no longer in their power, even were they so inclined, to effect their extermination. They have also pointed out many fertile spots, some of which are very extensive, where they have introduced the most valuable vegetable productions, not only necessary to the sustenance, but ministering to many of the luxuries, of civilized society; and they have, by their previous experiments, fully ascertained in what degree each is found to succeed. A certain proportion of the natives have, by the indefatigable labour of the missionaries, been weaned from their former uncivilized savage way of life, and are become obedient to social forms, and practised in many domestic occupations. All these circumstances are valuable considerations to new masters, from whose power, if properly employed, the Spaniards would have no alternative but that of submissively yielding.'

This species of political reasoning is not well calculated to make the Spaniards think that they acted wrongly, in discouraging the visits of strangers to their settlements.

Having finished the examination of the coast of New Albion, as far as to the 30th degree of latitude, the voyagers departed from the American coast, and steered towards the Sandwich Islands. On the 9th of January 1794, they were again in sight of Owhyhee; and on the next morning, before the ships got into harbour, the friendly Tamaahmaah came off to wel-

come them. By the reports of the masters of some trading vessels then at Owhyhee, it appears that, in their conduct towards strangers, the islanders had latterly been more orderly and civil, and evinced a better disposition towards them than had ever before been experienced. This may chiefly be attributed to the mild character of their present ruler, *Tamaahmaah*: but that some of the credit ought to be placed to the account of the good understanding which Captain V. made it his study to cultivate with the Chiefs, an extraordinary transaction which shortly afterward took place will sufficiently prove.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VI. *An Inquiry concerning the History of the Cow-pox*, principally with a View to supersede and extinguish the Small-pox. By George Pearson, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to St. George's Hospital, &c. 8vo. pp. 116. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

IN our last volume, p. 447, we reviewed a publication by Dr. Jenner on the causes and effects of the *variolæ vaccinæ*, or cow-pox: a subject unknown to the medical world, till it was introduced to their notice by that author. We have now another work on the same topic, from the pen of Dr. Pearson; which affords us a valuable commentary on the text of Dr. Jenner.

After a few introductory remarks, Dr. Pearson proceeds to examine the evidence of the principal facts asserted by Dr. Jenner concerning the cow-pox; and to relate what farther evidence he has derived from his own experience, or collected from the communications of others. In this examination we shall attend him, that our readers may know the state in which this inquiry, or discovery, now stands.

The first position to be investigated is thus expressed:

I. '*Persons who have undergone the* SPECIFIC FEVER *and* LOCAL DISEASE, *occasioned by the Cow-pox infection, communicated in the accidental way, (who had not undergone the Small-pox,) are thereby rendered unsusceptible of the Small-pox.*'

In confirmation of the evidence produced by Dr. Jenner, to establish this fact, we here find a variety of concurring testimonies: but we shall particularly notice only the experiments made under the author's immediate inspection, some of which are thus related:

'On Thursday, June 14th last, happening, with Mr. Lucas, Apothecary, to be on professional business at Mr. Willan's farm, adjoining to the New Road, Marybone; which farm is appropriated entirely for the support of from 800 to 1000 Milch Cows; I availed myself of that opportunity to make inquiry concerning the Cow-pox.

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I was told it was a pretty frequent disease among the Cows of that farm, especially in winter. That it was supposed to arise from sudden change from poor to rich food. It was also well known to the servants, some of whom had been affected with that malady, from milking the diseased Cows. On inquiry, I found three of the men servants, namely, Thomas Edinburgh, Thomas Grimshaw, and John Clarke, had been affected with the Cow-pox, but not with the Small-pox. I induced them to be inoculated for the Small-pox: and, with the view of ascertaining the efficacy of the variolous infection employed, William Kent and Thomas East, neither of whom had had either the Cow-pox or the Small-pox, were also inoculated.

'Three of these men, viz. Edinburgh, East, and Kent, were inoculated in each arm with perhaps a larger incision, and more matter, than usual, on Sunday, June 17th, by Mr. Lucas; and Dr. Woodville and myself were present. The matter was taken from a boy present, who had been inoculated 14 days before this time, and who was obligingly provided by Dr. Woodville.

'CASE I.

'Thomas Edinburgh, aged 26 years, had lived at the farm the last seven years. Had never had the Small-pox, nor Chicken-pox, nor any eruption resembling that of these diseases, but the Cow-pox, which he was certainly affected with six years ago. He was so lame from the eruption on the palm of the hands as to leave his employ, in order to be for some time in a public hospital; and he testified that his fellow-servant, Grimshaw, was at the same time ill with the same disorder. A cicatrix was seen on the palm of the hands, but none on any other part. He said that for three days in the disease, he suffered from pain in the axillæ, which were swollen and sore to the touch. According to the patient's description, the disease was uncommonly painful and of long continuance; whether on account of the unusual thickness of the skin, which was perceived by the lancet in inoculation, future observations may determine.

'THIRD DAY.—*Tuesday, 19th June.*

'A slight elevation appeared on the parts inoculated. No disorder was perceived of the constitution, nor complaint made.

'FIFTH DAY.—*Thursday, 21st.*

'The appearance on the part inoculated, of the left arm, was like that of a gnat bite, and Mr. Wacksel, Apothecary to the Small-pox Hospital, observed that the inflammation seemed too rapid for that of the variolous infection, when it produces the Small-pox. On the other arm there had been a little scab, which was rubbed off, leaving only a just visible red mark. No complaint was made.

'EIGHTH DAY.—*Sunday, 24th.*

'The inflammation on the left arm had subsided, and there was in place of it, a little scab. The right arm as before. Has remained quite well.

'Sent the patient with Mr. Wacksel to the Small-pox Hospital, where he was inoculated a second time, with matter from a person present, who then laboured under the Small-pox.

'FOURTH

'FOURTH DAY *after Second Inoculation, Wednesday, 27th.*

'A little inflammation appeared on the part inoculated of one arm, but none of that of the other. Except some slight pains and head-ach on Monday last, had remained quite well.

'EIGHTH DAY *after Second Inoculation, Sunday, July 1st.*

'A little dry scab was upon each part inoculated. No symptoms of disorder had appeared.

'CASE II.

'Thomas Grimshaw, aged about 30 years. Had lived in town at the farm only 7 weeks, but six years ago also lived at this place, when he was affected with the Cow-pox; and he testified that his fellow-servant, Edinburgh, was at the same time ill of the same disease. Grimshaw said he had pains and soreness on touching the axillæ during that illness, but he got much sooner well than Edinburgh.

'On Tuesday, the 19th June, Grimshaw was inoculated in both arms, at the Small-pox Hospital, from a patient then ill of the Small-pox.

'THIRD DAY.—*Thursday, 21st.*

'A little inflammation and fluid appeared under a lens in the parts inoculated, as if the infection had taken effect. Remained quite well.

'SIXTH DAY.—*Sunday, 24th.*

'Inflammation which had spread near the parts inoculated has disappeared; and now nothing was seen but a dry scab on them. Had not been at all disordered. He was inoculated this day a second time, as before, at the Small-pox Hospital.

'FOURTH DAY.—*Second Inoculation, Wednesday, June 27th.*

'Not the least inflammation from the last inoculation, nor any complaint.

'EIGHTH DAY.—*Second Inoculation, Sunday, July 1st.*

'Not the smallest inflammation from the inoculation. Had remained quite well.

'CASE III.

'John Clarke, 26 years of age, had the Cow-pox ten years ago at Abingdon, where he was under the care of a medical practitioner of that place. He was inoculated by Mr. Wacksel, at the Small-pox Hospital, on Tuesday, June 19th, from a patient affected with the Small-pox.

'THIRD DAY.—*Thursday, June 21st.*

'There was inflammation, and a fluid in the parts inoculated; but these appearances were judged to be premature, with respect to the Small-pox.

'SIXTH DAY.—*Sunday, June 24th.*

'The appearances of inflammation and fluid in the right arm were such as to make it doubtful, whether or not the variolous infection had taken effect; but there were no such appearances on the left arm, the inflammation being gone.

'He was this day inoculated a second time at the Small-pox Hospital, from a patient.

'EIGHTH

'EIGHTH DAY *after Second Inoculation, Sunday, July 1st.*

'No effect but inflammation, and afterwards festering, from the second inoculation.

'The inflammation on the right arm, from the first inoculation, went off in a day or two after the last report. He had remained quite well in all respects.'

The other two men, Wm. Kent, and Thomas East, who had not had the cow-pox, underwent the variolous disease in consequence of inoculation.

From these, and a variety of other instances, related in the most positive terms, it is difficult to refuse our assent to the proposition that 'the specific fever and local disease, named cow-pox,' incapacitates the patient from afterward undergoing the small-pox.—We say this on the faith of the experiments which have hitherto been tried:—but let it be remembered that numerous indeed should be the instances of success in order to establish, beyond doubt, a doctrine like this, so uncommon, so unsupported by analogy, and which must immediately fall if opposed by *one* real instance of failure.

The next position is that

II. '*Persons who have been affected with the Specific Fever, and peculiar Local Disease, by* INOCULATION OF THE COW-POX INFECTION, *who had not previously undergone the Small-pox; are thereby rendered unsusceptible of the Small-pox.*'

Dr. Pearson's additional testimonies in favour of this doctrine are as follow:—the first is from Dr. Pulteney, of Blandford:

"A farmer in this country inoculated his wife and children with matter taken from the teat of a cow. At the end of a week the arms inflamed, and the patients were so far affected, as to alarm the farmer, although unnecessarily, and incline him to call in medical assistance. They all soon got well, and were afterwards inoculated for the Small-pox, but no disease followed. I was not applied to in this case, but the fact is sufficiently ascertained."—

2dly. 'Mr. Downe of Bridport furnishes me with important information on the present fact. "R. F. near Bridport, when about 20 years of age, was at a farm house when the dairy was infected with the Cow-pox. It being suggested to him that it would be the means of preserving him from the Small-pox, which he had never taken, if he would submit to be inoculated with the Cow-pox; he gave his consent: he was infected in two or three places in his hand with a needle. He felt no inconvenience till about a week, when the parts began to inflame, and his hand to swell, his head to ach, and many other symptoms of fever came on. He was recommended to keep much in the open air, which he did, and in 4 or 5 days the symptoms of fever went off, as the maturation of the hand advanced. The parts soon healed, leaving permanent scars. He was afterwards inoculated twice by my grandfather, and a considerable time after twice

twice by my father, but without any other effect than a slight irritation of the part, such as is occasioned in the arms of persons who have already had the Small-pox. It was not expected at the time, that the Small-pox poison would be effectual, but it was inserted, partly by way of experiment, and partly by way of precaution, the Small-pox being then in the family. The Small-pox has been repeatedly since in his own family, and he never avoided it, being confident that it was not possible to infect him with this disease.—The next case, by Mr. Downe, although it affords defective evidence, is not useless. "I have lately conversed with a person who was, in play, inoculated in the hand with the Cow-pox matter. The wounds apparently healed for a time, and then inflamed. He had a swelling in the axilla, pain in the head, sickness, and slight fever. No eruption took place, but there was much maturation at the place of insertion, and considerable scars remain."—

3dly. 'Mr. Dolling, of Blandford, communicates the following instances: "Mr. Justings of Axminster inoculated his wife and children with matter taken from the teats of a Cow that had the Cow-pox: in about a week after inoculation, their arms were very much inflamed, and the patients were so ill, that the medical assistance of Mr. Meach, of Cerne, was called for. The patients did well. They were afterwards inoculated for the Small-pox by Mr. Trobridge, without effect."

These are the testimonies produced in addition to those urged by Dr. Jenner: but when it is considered that the cow-pox is asserted always to be communicated by inoculation, whether casual or designed,—then every case of cow-pox, not allowing the future action of small-pox, becomes a testimony in point.

Position III. '*The disease produced by inoculating with the matter of the Cow-pox, does not differ from the disease produced by inoculation with the matter from the human animal; nor is any difference observed in the effects of the matter from the first human subject infected from the brute animal, or from the matter generated, successively, in the second, third, fourth, or fifth human creature, from its origin in the brute.*'

On this head, no corroborating testimony is produced.

'IV. *A person having been affected with the Specific Fever, and Local Disease, produced by the Cow-pox poison, is liable to be again affected as before by the same poison; and yet such person is not susceptible of the Small-pox.*'

Dr. Pearson remarks that professional men are extremely reluctant in yielding their assent to this position; and the only additional testimony which he brings, in support of it, is that of Mr. Woodman, of Aylesbury; who says that "the cow-pox does not supersede itself on future occasions, for the cow boys have it repeatedly." Dr. Pearson's observation on this head requires to be quoted:

'The

'The evidence for this fact, to my apprehension, only proves, satisfactorily, that the *local affection* of the Cow-pox may occur in the same person more than once; but whether the *peculiar fever* also occurs more than once in the same person, from the Cow-pox poison, does not appear certain; and must be determined by future observations, to be made with a particular view to this point. Future observations must likewise determine, whether, in those cases, (if such occur,) in which a person, after having gone through the Cow-pox, takes the Small-pox, the Cow-pox was attended with a fever, or was merely a local affection. It seems pretty well ascertained, that the variolous poison may produce the Small-pox only locally, or without any affection of the whole constitution; and in such a case, the constitution is still susceptible of the Small-pox, and yet, in both cases, viz. of the *local affection* only, and of the whole constitution, the matter of the eruptions is capable of infecting others, so as to produce the Small-pox; either locally only, or also in the whole constitution. Hence it seems probable, that similar local and general effects may be produced by the Cow-pox poison, and not only in the human kind, but in Cows. I acknowledge, however, that the Case, p. 51. in *Jenner*'s book, militates against this supposition.'—

V. '*A person is susceptible of the Cow-pox, who has antecedently been affected with the Small-pox.*'

Little additional information is given on this subject: yet the positive proof of this fact by Dr. Jenner * occasions a very curious distinction in this question;—namely, that, while the cow-pox renders the patients incapable of undergoing the future action of the small-pox, the converse of the proposition does not hold, and the small-pox does not render the patient unsusceptible of cow-pox.

VI. '*The Cow-pox is not communicated in the state of effluvia, or gas; nor by adhering to the skin, in an imperceptibly small quantity; nor scarcely unless it be applied to divisions of the skin, by abrasions, punctures, wounds, &c.*'—

VII. '*The local affection in the Cow-pox, produced in the casual way, is generally more severe, and of longer duration, than usually happens in the local affection in the inoculated Small-pox; but in the Cow-pox the fever is in no case attended with symptoms which denote danger, nor has it, in any instance, been known to prove mortal.*'—

VIII. '*No consequential disease, which should be attributed to the Cow-pox, has been observed; nor has any disease been excited, to which there previously existed a disposition; nor has it been discovered to produce a pre-disposition to particular diseases.*'—

On this subject, Dr. Pearson properly remarks that,

'Although a considerable body of evidence might be stated in confirmation of these momentous facts, from the experience of Dr. Jenner, and the uniform testimony of my correspondents: and al-

* See Case VII. of Dr. Jenner's publication.

though

though we should be inclined to conclude in favour of these facts, from the consideration of the nature of the Cow-pox, as far as yet known: yet it does not appear to my judgment that the observations and arguments warrant more than conclusions on the side of great probability. A number of persons, many hundreds, have gone through the inoculated Small-pox under the observation of many practitioners, without any disease, or disposition to disease, being produced by the Small-pox; yet no one doubts, that in a certain proportion of instances, disease has been excited, and disposition to disease been produced.

'We are led then to think, that a greater number, and more accurate observations are wanting, to authorise positive conclusions relating to the facts stated under this VIII head.'—

IX. '*The Cow-pox infection may produce the peculiar local disease belonging to it, but without the disorder of the constitution; in which case, the constitution is liable to be infected by the Small-pox infection.*'

Such are the aphorisms (or "*facts*") on which Dr. Pearson has very ably commented; and in elucidation of which he has exerted great industry, and procured much valuable information.

In the subsequent part of this inquiry, Dr. Pearson enlarges on the probable improvement of our medical practice in consequence of substituting the cow-pox for the small-pox. He truly remarks that its utility 'must depend upon the effects of the cow-pox, in comparison with the small-pox, especially in the particulars *of the degree of danger to life; the kind of symptoms, and their duration;* and *the subsequent effects on the constitution.*'

On this subject, however, much experience, and on a very enlarged scale, is wanting: a long list of facts must be adduced, in order to persuade us to dismiss the practice of inoculating for the small-pox; and we may safely conjecture that much time will elapse before a testimony can be given in favour of cow-pox inoculation, that shall outweigh the following fact related by Dr. Woodville: "From January to August inclusive, out of upwards of 1700 patients inoculated at the Inoculation Hospital, including the *in* and *out* patients, *only two died;* both of whom were of the latter description."

Let us not be understood as wishing to decry the value and use of this important investigation: far different is our intention.—We cannot indeed flatter ourselves that, by means of it, the variolous infection will be extinguished; and 'that loathsome and destructive disease, the small-pox, be known only by name:' yet we trust that an increase of our knowlege will accrue from this inquiry, and that some improvements may be added to our practice. At all events, whatever

may be the fate of the fact in question, they who have assisted its investigation are certainly deserving of praise.

ART. VII. *Reflections on the Propriety of performing the Cæsarean Operation:* to which are added Observations on Cancer; and Experiments on the supposed Origin of Cow-pox. By W. Simmons, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons, and Senior Surgeon to the Manchester Infirmary. 8vo. pp. 97. 2s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1798.

MR. Simmons here professes himself a determined opponent to the Cæsarean operation; all trace of which,' he hopes, 'will in future be banished from professional books;' for, he observes, 'it can never be justifiable during the parent's life, and stands recorded only to disgrace the art.' As this is a point which we do not choose to discuss here, we shall leave the surgical reader to judge of this opinion, and to consult the work; two thirds of which are occupied by this subject.

The observations on *Cancer* are very short. The author rejects the external application of arsenical remedies, but relates a single case in which arsenic, taken internally in very small quantities, was productive of material benefit. The dose consisted of twelve drops of the mineral solution of Dr. Fowler, three times in a day.

The experiments on the supposed origin of *Cow-pox* will best speak for themselves.—Doubting that this poison arises from the horse-disease called *the Grease*, as conjectured by Dr. Jenner, Mr. S. determined to ascertain the fact; and he thus relates the result:

'With the assistance of a veterinary surgeon to enable me to procure the *erysipelatous* fluid in its proper state, I instituted a course of experiments.

'The fluid used in the three following experiments, which was thin and of a yellowish colour, was taken from the inflamed heel of a horse, a few hours after the disease had taken place, and before any dressing had been applied.

'Oct. 29 —— —— æt. 2 years; —— —— æt. 6 months; and —— —— æt. 3 months, all fine healthy looking children, were inoculated with the above fluid, by making four punctures in the left arm of each, at a little distance from each other.

'Nov. 1. There appeared just as much inflammation on the edges of the punctures, as might be expected from the scratch of a clean lancet.

'The cooling regimen was enjoined, but no medicine was given.

'5. All the punctures were quite well: and the skin had recovered its former complexion.

'Variolous matter was inserted to-day, very much diluted with warm water, by making one single puncture in the arm of each, and in the centre of the former.

'8. They

'8. They all had evidently taken the infection.

'The disease went through its usual course, in its mildest form.

'The fluid used in the following experiments was taken from the heel of a horse, in a high state of inflammation, and discharging copiously a *brownish coloured ichorous fluid.* The first symptom of the disease had shewn itself scarcely six-and-thirty hours, and the discharge not more than twenty-four hours, and, as he was reserved for my use, no dressing had been applied.

'Nov. 16. With this fluid I inoculated three cows, by making a puncture in each teat; and, the cuticle covering them being thicker than in the warmer months, I took particular pains in inserting it.

'For several days, traces of the punctures were discernible; and then they disappeared, without having excited the least sign of disease.

'At the same time, I inoculated two cows of the same herd with variolous matter, by making a puncture in each teat; but there occurred no perceptible change.

'With a part of the same ichorous fluid three children were inoculated, by making four punctures in the left arm of each; but neither inflammation, nor disease of any kind, ensued.

'If the disease called cow-pox will free the constitution of those who undergo it, from receiving, ever after, the infection of the small-pox; it is reasonable to infer, that the poison of both is identical. It is a fact well ascertained, that the small-pox may be communicated, either by the erysipelatous fluid, obtained from the inoculated part, before the eruptive fever comes on; or in the form of pus, taken at the period of complete maturation: or even by the scab of the dried pustule, in the last stage of the complaint.

'The limitation of the contagious power of the fluid supposed to occasion the cow-pox, and obtained from the horse's heel, to the first or erysipelatous stage of the grease, disproves the identity; and also destroys any analogy, that might have been conceived to subsist between it and variolous matter.

'Twelve punctures were made in the teats of the three cows inoculated with the *ichorous* fluid, and it did not produce the smallest effect in either of them: six children were inoculated with the same sort of fluid, by making four punctures in the left arm of each; and no disease whatever ensued; eight punctures were made in the teats of two cows, and variolous matter was inserted; but not the smallest change took place: one single puncture, with diluted variolous matter, gave the small-pox to a child.

'The evidence, therefore, is as *one* to *twenty-four*, in the human subject, between variolous matter, and the discharge from the horse's heel; as *one* to *twelve* in cows; and, between the insertion of variolous matter in man and in cows, as *one* to *eight*.

'I had engaged a herd, consisting of thirty cows, for my experiments; but it appeared useless to prosecute them farther, unless I could have procured some genuine cow-pox matter.

'These experiments prove, first, that the cow-pox poison does not originate in the horse's heel; secondly, that cows will not take the small-pox.

'The

'The cow-pox is a disease wholly unknown to farmers, both in Cheshire, and in Lancashire; so that disappointment could not arise from the animals having undergone that disease: and in Cheshire, a large dairy-county, the men are employed indiscriminately in cleaning the horses, and in milking the cows.'

The event of these experiments is certainly unfavourable to Dr. Jenner's hypothesis.

ART. VIII. *An Account of the most approved Mode of Draining Land*, according to the System practised by Mr. Joseph Elkington, late of Princethorp in the County of Warwick: with an Appendix, containing Hints for the farther Improvement of Bogs and other Marshy Ground, after draining; together with Observations on hollow and surface Draining in general. The whole illustrated by explanatory Engravings. Drawn up for Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By John Johnstone, Land-Surveyor. 4to. pp. 183. 1l. 1s. Boards. Edinburgh printed: sold by Nicol in London. 1797.

THE subject of this publication is of great importance: it has excited, and will continue to excite, the attention of intelligent country-gentlemen; who, by their spirited and well-directed exertions to drain those parts of their estates which were wet and boggy, will improve their rentals, and increase the productiveness and salubrity of the country. Till of late, the art of land-draining, in order to discharge cultivated or *cultivatable* land of its superfluous water, had not been well understood: but two gentlemen, nearly about the same time, and nearly in the same way, made a discovery which threw considerable light on the subject, and has since served to point out the proper practice. Dr. Anderson, in a late work intitled "*A Practical Treatise on Draining Bogs and Swampy Grounds*," (of which we gave an account in our Review for September last, vol. XXVII. p. 46.) deems himself the first discoverer: but it appears that the idea which is the basis of the improved mode of draining land suggested itself to Dr. Anderson, as he himself tells us, in the year 1764; and by the treatise under review, it is shewn that Mr. Elkington* was led to the practical adoption of it, by an accidental discovery in the year 1763.

Having, in the article above cited, extracted what Dr. Anderson advanced in asserting his claim to priority of discovery, we consider ourselves impelled by justice to exhibit what is here stated as to *the origin of the discovery made by Mr. Elkington, and the means that first led him to the knowlege of the art,*

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* Originally a farmer in the county of Warwick.

especially as Mr. Johnstone assures us that 'its veracity may be depended on':

'In the year 1763, Mr. Elkington was left by his father the possession of a farm called Princethorp, in the parish of Stretton upon Dunsmore, and county of Warwick. The soil of this farm was very poor, and in many places so extremely wet, that it had been the cause of rotting several hundred sheep, which was the first means that determined him, if possible, to drain it, which he began to do in 1764. The field in which he began was of a wet clay soil, rendered almost a swamp, (and, indeed, in some places, a *shaking bog*,) by the springs issuing from a bank of gravel and sand adjoining it, and overflowing the surface of the clay in the manner described in the annexed plan, which is a true representation of it. In order to drain this field, he cut a trench about four or five feet deep, a little below the upper side of the bog, or where the wetness began to make its appearance; and after proceeding with it so far in this direction, and at this depth, he found it did not reach *the main body of subjacent water*, from whence the evil proceeded. On discovering this, Mr. Elkington was at a loss how to proceed. At this time, while he was considering what was next to be done, one of his servants accidentally came to the field where the drain was making, with an iron crow or bar, which the farmers in that country use in making holes for fixing their sheep hurdles. Mr. Elkington having a suspicion that his drain was not deep enough, and a desire to know what kind of strata lay under the bottom of it, took the iron bar from the servant, and after having forced it down about four feet below the bottom of the trench, on pulling it out, to his astonishment, a great quantity of water burst up through the hole he had thus made, and ran down the drain. This, at once, led him to the knowlege of wetness being often produced by water confined farther below the surface of the ground, than it was possible for the usual depth of drains to reach, and induced him to think of applying an auger, as a proper instrument in such cases. Thus did the discovery originate from chance, the parent of many other useful arts! In this manner, he not only accomplished the drainage of this field which soon rendered it completely sound, but likewise all the other wet ground on his farm.

'The success of this experiment soon extended Mr. Elkington's fame, in the knowledge of draining, from one part of the country to another; and after having drained several farms in his neighbourhood with equal success, he at last came to be very generally employed, has been since, and is now, in various parts of the kingdom, which shall be more particularly taken notice of in the sequel. It is, indeed, now impossible for him to execute half the employment he has in hand, or to accept the numerous offers that are every day made to him. From his long practice and experience, he is now so successful in the works which he undertakes, and also in judging of the internal strata of the earth and nature of springs, that he can, with remarkable precision, judge where to find water, and where to trace the course of springs that make no appearance on the surface of the ground.

ground. The rules on which he acts, with regard to these discoveries, will be afterwards explained in treating of the nature of wet ground caused by springs.

'Lastly, Within these few years past, since his practice has been so widely extended, and so generally successful, he has drained in various parts of England, particularly in the midland counties, many thousand acres of land, which, from being originally of little or no value, is now as productive as any in the kingdom, capable of producing the most valuable kinds of grain, or of feeding the best and healthiest species of stock.

'Some have erroneously entertained an idea that Mr. Elkington's sole skill lies in applying the auger for the *tapping of springs*, without attaching any merit to his method of conducting the drains. The accidental circumstance above stated gave him the first notion of using an auger, and directed his attention to the practice of draining, in the course of which he has made various useful discoveries, which are herein afterwards more fully explained. It will be sufficient here to remark, that draining, according to his principles, depends upon three points:—1*st*, Upon finding out the *main spring*, or cause of the mischief, without which nothing effectual can be done. 2*d*, Upon taking the level of that spring, and ascertaining *its subterraneous bearings*, a measure never practised by any till Mr. Elkington discovered the advantage to be derived from it; for, if the drain is cut a yard beyond *the line of the spring*, you can never reach the water that issues from it, and, by ascertaining that line by means of levelling, you can cut off the spring effectually, and consequently drain the land in the cheapest and most eligible manner. The manner in which this is done will be afterwards described. And, 3*dly*, By making use of the auger to reach or *tap* the spring, when the depth of the drain is not sufficient for that purpose.

'In regard to the use of the auger, though there is every reason to believe Mr. Elkington was led to employ that instrument from the accidental circumstance stated above, and did not derive it from any other channel; yet there is no doubt that others have hit upon the same idea, without being indebted for it to him. It is said, that in attempting to discover mines by means of an auger, springs have been tapped, and the adjacent wet ground thereby drained, either by letting the water down, or giving it vent to the surface. The auger has also been made use of in bringing water into wells, by boring in the bottom of them, to save the expence of digging, especially in Italy, where it is probable that the practice is very ancient. But, *that it has been used in draining land before Mr. Elkington made that discovery, no one has ventured to assert.*

'In Dr. Nugent's Travels through Germany, printed anno 1768 (of which an extract will be found in chapter v.), there is an account of a mode of draining land, on principles in some respects of a similar nature, not indeed by the use of the auger, but by making pits. And, in a publication by Dr. James Anderson, entitled "Essays on Agriculture and Rural Affairs," printed anno 1775, after describing a mode of tapping the Doctor had adopted, by sinking small pits, he adds, "I have often imagined that the expence of digging these

pits might be saved, by boring a hole through this solid stratum of clay, with a wimble made on purpose; but as I have never experienced this, I cannot say whether it would answer the desired end exactly."

'Mr. Elkington, however, made use of the auger prior to the date of these publications, or to any hint he could possibly derive from any publication in the English language, though it is probable that, in so far as regarded *tapping of springs for wells*, the use of the auger was well known in some parts of Italy. Buffon states, "That, in the city of Modena, and four miles round, whatever part is dug, when we reach the depth of sixty-three feet, and bore five feet deeper with an auger, the water springs out with such force, that the well is filled in a very short space of time. This water flows continually, and neither diminishes nor increases by the rain or drought." Mentioning the different strata that are met with to this depth, he adds, "These successive beds of fenny or marshy earth and chalk, are always found in the same order wherever we dig; and very often the auger meets with large trunks of trees, which it bores through, but which give great trouble to the workmen; bones, coals, flint, and pieces of iron, are also found. Ramazzini, who relates these facts, &c." *Buffon's Nat. Hist.*'

This new principle of draining, by tapping springs, or by perforating with an auger through a retentive into an absorbent or porous stratum, being ascertained, its application in theory is obvious: but it will require some judgment to direct its practice. Mr. Johnstone represents Mr. Elkington, to whom Parliament has awarded 1000 *l.*, as having been peculiarly fortunate, not only in the original discovery, but in the various and extensive use which he has made of it. This work is an exhibition of his system drawn out into actual practice; and there are many to whom it will be very acceptable. The letter-press, assisted by the plates, will explain the draining-process requisite for wet soils of every description and in every situation: but, without the plates, the detail would not always be very intelligible. We shall not, therefore, notice the various instances in which Mr. Elkington's principle has been applied with effect, but content ourselves with an extract explanatory of the principle itself.

'Wetness in land proceeds from two causes, as different in themselves as the effects which they produce.

'It proceeds either from rain water stagnant on the surface, or from the water of springs issuing over, or confined under it. On clay soils, that have no natural descent, wetness is commonly produced by the first of these causes; but, in a variety of situations, it may proceed from the latter.——But,

'The principles of Mr. Elkington's art are so closely connected with the nature of springs, that, without a knowledge of these, and the causes producing them, it is impossible to practise it with either success

success or advantage; for *surface draining*, where the wetness proceeds from subjacent water, is only alleviating the effect, in place of removing the cause. It will therefore be necessary, in the *first* place, so far to ascertain the nature of springs, and their connection with the formation of bogs, as to enable the practical drainer more easily to comprehend the theoretical part of Mr. Elkington's system.

'From its general external appearance, and by the perforations that have been made in it by quarries, wells, and other subterraneous pits, the earth is known to be composed of various strata, which, being in their nature of opposite consistence, are distinguished by the names of *porous* and *impervious*. Those strata, which, from their more open composition, are porous, and capable of receiving the rain water that falls on them, include rock, gravel, sand, and such marles as are of an absorbent quality. Clay, and a certain kind of gravel having a proportion of clay in its composition, which, by binding and cementing the small stones together, renders it equally close and tenacious as clay itself; with such rock as is of a close and compact nature, without any fissures in it, are the principal strata that most resist the reception of water, and that are capable of retaining it on their surface till exhaled by the sun, or carried off by suitable drains, and are termed impervious.

'Springs therefore originate from rain water falling upon such porous and absorbent surfaces, and subsiding downwards through such, till, in its passage, it meets a body of clay or other impenetrable substance, which obstructs its farther descent, and here, forming a reservoir or considerable collection of water, it is forced either to filtrate along such body, or rise to some part of the surface, where it oozes out in all those different appearances that are so frequently met with. This is evident from the immediate disappearance of the rain water, as it falls, on some parts of the ground, while it remains stagnant on others, till carried off by evaporation; and from the strength of springs being greater in wet than in dry seasons. Hence, after incessant rains, they are observed to break out in higher situations, and, as the weather becomes drier, give over running out, unless at their lowest outlets. The strength of springs also, or quantity of water which they issue, depends chiefly on the extent of high ground that receives and retains the rain, forming large reservoirs, which affords them a more regular supply. Thus bog-springs, or those that rise in valleys and low situations, are much stronger, and have a more regular discharge, than those which break out on higher ground, or on the sides of hills.

'Independent of these causes, there are certainly great springs contained in the bowels of the earth; otherwise, how could the many rivers that intersect it be supplied with such vast quantities of water as they discharge, the rains falling on its surface, or the dews that descend, not being adequate for that purpose? But, as this may be considered among those arcana of nature which have not yet been sufficiently explored, and lying at too great a depth to affect the surface, it comes not within the limits of the present inquiry.

'With the nature and causes of springs, that of bogs is intimately connected; for, where springs breaking out in the manner above described,

scribed, run over a flat surface of clay, and cannot get off with sufficient rapidity, or are not confined to a narrow channel; the superabundance of water must cause the dissolution of all the coarse vegetables it produces, which, together with part of the natural soil itself, is formed into a peat earth, every year increasing in depth; and the extent of such bog or morass is according to the quantity of water, and to that of the flat ground on which it is formed. The great object of Mr. Elkington's system is, that of draining such bogs, by cutting off entirely the source of the springs or subterraneous water that cause the wetness, either by flowing over the surface, or by its being long confined under it. If the springs have a natural outlet, the object of the drain is, to lower and enlarge it, which, by giving the water a more free and easy channel, will sooner discharge and draw it off, or will reduce it to a level so far below the surface, as to prevent its overflowing it.

'Where the springs have no apparent outlet, but are either confined so far below the surface, as to injure it by constant moisture, or by oozing out imperceptibly through any small pores of the upper soil; the object of the drain is, to give a proper vent to that water, and to extract more quickly and more effectually what has before been pent up in the bosom of the soil. The object of the auger, which in many instances is the *sine qua non* of the business, is simply to reach or *tap* the spring, and to give vent to the water thus pent up, when the depth of the drain does not reach it, where the level of the outlet will not admit its being cut to that depth, and where the expence of cutting so deep would be very great, and the execution of it very difficult.

'As the whole depends upon the situation of the ground to be drained, and the nature and inclination of the strata of which the adjacent country is composed; as much knowledge as possible must be obtained of these before the proper course of a drain can be ascertained, or any specific rules given for its direction or execution.'

By Mr. Johnstone's account, Mr. Elkington does not merely content himself with discharging water from soils in which it is injurious, but endeavours to convert what has hitherto operated as an evil into a real good, by making it serve the purposes of irrigation, of supplying ponds, or reservoirs, or houses, or for turning mills.

A description is given, with plates, of the level, augers, and other instruments, employed in Mr. E.'s mode of draining; by which many large tracts of wet and boggy land in the kingdom have been effectually laid dry and brought under tillage; as is evident from subjoined extracts taken from the Agricultural Reports.

This useful work is enriched by its Appendix, containing, in 19 sections, many hints, remarks, rules, and directions, relative to the practice of hollow draining; which will be of great use to the young land-surveyor, or to the gentleman who wishes to superintend his own improvements.

ART.

ART. IX. *Dialogues of Lucian*, from the Greek. Vols. IV. and V.* 8vo. 10s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

AFTER a long interval, Mr. Carr has produced the remaining volumes of his translation of this lively and eccentric, but too licentious writer. He has judiciously omitted many parts which merit the latter epithet, and has confined his labours to those passages which exhibit the fine sense of the satirist, without his follies and his ribaldry.—Perhaps the learned reader may in some instances charge Mr. Carr with too great familiarity of diction, and with taking undue liberties in his attempts to imitate rather than to translate the original with fidelity; yet we think that he may plead, in his defence, the acknowleged rules of liberal interpretation, in regard to an author whose graces are sometimes beyond the reach of art.

Although Lucian is frequently sarcastic and ludicrous, and approaches too often to the character of a buffoon, yet his works furnish many instances of dignified satire, philosophical acuteness, and a noble spirit of moral disquisition. We think that our readers will be pleased with the following quotation from the life of Demonax (vol. v.), in which the character of a true philosopher is drawn with that skill, accuracy, and gravity, which would confer honour on the disciples of the Porch.

'Demonax was a Cyprian by birth, of a family far from being obscure; being distinguished by abundant possessions, as well as consequence in the state. Superior to such considerations, and aspiring to all that was great and good, he applied himself to the study of philosophy, not from any recommendation of Agathobolus, or his predecessor Demetrius, or Epictetus, though very well acquainted with all the three, as he was with Timocrates, the wise and eloquent Heraclian; it was not, I say, owing to any other philosopher, that he became one; but from the native impulse of his own mind, which from his early youth had directed him to the most honourable pursuits, looking down, as from an eminence, on the follies of mankind, and devoting his life to liberty and truth. Sober and irreproachable in his manners, he set before those who saw him and heard him an example to be followed by all. Not that he came, as the proverb expresses it, with feet unwashed; for there was hardly a poet, whose verses he could not repeat. He had practised the art of speaking, and had studied the distinguishing tenets of the several philosophical sects, not merely to touch them, as the saying is, with the tip of his finger, but that he might perfectly understand them. His body, at the same time, had not been neglected, but trained by exercise, and inured to labour. The point with him was, never to be beholden to any one: which when he became sensible was not in his power to

* See Reviews of the former, in vols. xlix. lxi. and lxxvi.

 attain,

attain, he quitted life of his own accord, leaving all the great men of Greece a great deal to talk about.

'It was not that he had cut his philosophical coat from any particular cloth; for it was a composition of shreds and patches, picked up here and there *, and nobody knew which piece he liked best. However, it was observed, that he seemed most at home with Socrates, following, at the same time, the Philosopher † of Sinope in his habit and simplicity of life, yet without restricting himself to a mean diet for the purpose of being stared at. He affected not singularity in his appearance or manners, eating, drinking, and conversing, in public and private, just like other people, without pride or ostentation. His conversation was the graceful Attic, pure and unmixed with Socratic irony. No one thought meanly of it, nor did any one ever leave him as dreading the severity of his censure. His companions were pleased and improved, went away better men, with better hopes of an hereafter. He was not addicted to the noise of contention, nor put himself out of humour, because he saw the necessity of reproof; he could forgive the offender, and yet be severe on the offence; well knowing, that a wise physician never thinks of curing the disease by railing at the patient. To err, he said, was human; godlike, to reclaim. Pursuing this course of life, and in want of nothing for himself, he was always ready to supply the wants of others; whom he never failed to admonish, whenever he saw them exulting in prosperity, how frail and transitory it was. Such as complained of poverty, exile, old age, or ill health, were sure to be rebuked with a smile, for not considering how very soon their sufferings would have an end, when both good and evil would be lost in oblivion, and they all would find a lasting deliverance. If brothers were at variance, it was his business to make them friends; if husbands and wives disagreed, he was the mediator ‡ between them; and there have been instances, in turbulent times, when a seasonable speech, in his pleasant way, has subdued the spirit of party, brought over sedition to the service of the state, and made even taxes popular: such was our philosopher, mild, smiling, unassuming.'

The notes at the bottom of the pages are chiefly composed of allusions to modern facts or customs; and though they carry with them no marks of extraordinary erudition or sagacity, they may afford assistance to the English reader, by enabling him to relish the text.—Mr. Carr takes no notice of Dr. Franklyn's more classical translation of this author, though it was subsequent to his first publication of the three vols.

This fifth vol. completes Mr. Carr's design. At the end of it, he informs us that,

'As a preface to this last volume, I had set about preparing a Dissertation on the works of my author. I had found in my drawer

'* A curious receipt to make a new sect.'

'† Diogenes.'

'‡ A service of danger.'

a bundle

a bundle of Remarks ready made; and it could not be a painful task, when there was little more left to be done, than to collect the scattered opinions of the learned, which, with the unlearned, might have passed for my own. Nevertheless, after some sober reflections on the use and abuse of wit, I have changed my mind; and give up Lucian, with all his faults, to judges duly commissioned,

"—— who read each work of wit
With the same spirit that its author writ,"

only begging them not to forget, that he lived and wrote many ages ago; that his education was none of the best; that chastity of style and manners did not then universally prevail, as in these happy times; and that, though he could run away from his apprenticeship, his Dialogues could hardly escape some small tincture of those in his uncle's shop. Just as the conversation of Lord Bolingbroke, after all his greatness, and with all his elegance, might still be traced to the inns of court:

'Quo semel est imbuta recens, servabit odorem
Testa diu.

'Monsieur Balzac, who deserved so well of the first person singular, when he spoke of himself and his letters, used to take off his beaver; but a Translator, the ninth part of an author, when he is contented with his proportionate share of vanity, and in possession of a hat, will be more chary of it. I pull off mine, this cold day, not to myself, but my Reader, with whom I wish to exchange forgiveness, and part in peace, while he looks so pleased to see the end of the book.'

'*Jan.* 29, 1798. J. C.'

None of Mr. Carr's readers, probably, will refuse to return this courteous salute, nor fail to accompany it with thanks for the entertainment with which he has supplied them.

ART. X. *The Treatise of Cicero, de Officiis;* or, his Essay on Moral Duty. Translated, and accompanied with Notes and Observations, by William M'Cartney, Minister of Old Kilpatrick. 8vo. pp. 365. 5s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; Robinsons, London. 1798.

THE writings of Hume, Adam Smith, and Paley, have discovered such comprehension and accuracy on the nature and extent of the Moral Duties, that to an English reader this treatise of the great Roman orator will appear comparatively dry and uninstructive. The subject, indeed, through the three divisions adopted by the author, is too often *violated* (if we may so express it) by frivolous questions, fabulous illustrations, and a too frequent neglect of luminous arrangement. With these disadvantages the translator of the three books *De Officiis* had to contend; besides the difficulty of rendering with ease the "*æquabile & compositum genus orationis*" of the

original. The learned reader will grant him indulgence, should he sometimes appear diffuse and at other times abrupt; as Cicero in this essay frequently uses the petulant mode of dialectics which distinguished the school of Socrates, and sometimes the declamatory style of reasoning which marked the writings of his disciple Plato. The notes annexed to the volume are well suited to persons who are unacquainted with the nature of classical writings, as they are occasionally illustrative of the persons and historical events to which the text alludes; and sometimes contain observations on the text itself, where a doubtful, vague, or improper sentiment is delivered. The original work was written by Cicero to his son, then a student at Athens; and this circumstance may account for the style being nearer allied to the epistolary than to the argumentative form of writing.

That our readers may judge of the manner in which this work is rendered into English, we transcribe the following passage from the Third Book.

'Let us pass over fabulous and foreign details, and come to the authentic history of our own country. M. Atillius Regulus, during his second consulship, was surprised, and taken prisoner, by Xanthippus, the Lacedemonian general in Africa, when Hamilcar, the father of Hannibal, was commander in chief. He was sent to Rome to the senate, after having taken an oath, that, unless certain noble captives were restored to the Carthaginians, he should himself return to Carthage When he came to Rome, he observed the appearance of utility in his mission; but, as the event declares, he conceived it no more than an appearance. Such was his situation; and who would deny that it was profitable to remain in his native country; to be at home with his wife and children; and, judging the calamity he had sustained the common fate of war, to retain the rank of consular dignity? What is your opinion?—Greatness of mind and fortitude deny that it was profitable.

'Could you ask more ample authorities than these?—It is the property of such virtues, to fear nothing; to despise all human things; to think nothing intolerable that can happen to man. What then did Regulus do? He came into the senate, and laid before them his commission: he refused to give his opinion; for he was not a senator as long as he was bound by an oath to an enemy. And in that celebrated speech, which some will declare foolish, and repugnant to his own interest, he denied that it would be an advantage to restore the captives; for they were young men and able generals, but he was now wasted with age. When his influence prevailed, the captives were retained, and he returned to Carthage; and neither the love of his country, nor affection for his family and friends, detained him. Nor was he then ignorant that he was returning to a most cruel enemy, and to exquisite punishment: but he thought his oath was to be kept. His condition, therefore, was better, even when put to death by watching, than if he had remained at home an

old captive and a perjured nobleman. But it was folly, it may be said, not only to give his opinion against restoring the captives, but even to dissuade the measure. How, folly? Was it folly, if the advice was conducive to the public welfare? Can that be profitable for any citizen, which is detrimental to the state?"

We have seen two or three former translations of *Cicero de Officiis* into English; one by Cockman, another by Guthrie, and (we think) a third: but we do not recollect the name of the translator.

ART. XI. *A Letter to the Dilettanti Society*, respecting the Obtention of certain Matters essentially necessary for the Improvement of Public Taste, and for accomplishing the original Views of the Royal Academy of Great Britain. By James Barry, Esq. R. A. Professor of Painting to the Royal Academy. 4to. pp. 76. 3s. 6d. Walker. 1798.

MR. Barry stands very high in the scale of European art. We recollect few pictures of any living painter equal to his Olympic Triumph, in the Adelphi Buildings; and scarcely any single figure so divinely yet harrowingly expressive, as the Angel of Retribution in his Elysium. His Groupes have indeed been reproached with flatness of colouring, and a too anxious and habitual imitation of classical prototypes: but by beauties how great! are these alleged blemishes counterbalanced!—From such an artist, every word concerning his art ought to be received with great impression. Yet his Inquiry into the real and imaginary Obstructions to the Acquisition of the Arts in England, published so long ago as 1775, has caused no reformations (see especially c. XI.); and his Letter addressed in 1793 to the Society of Arts, (an account of which occurs in our 12th vol. N. S. p. 23.) though better known, has produced as little effect.

The Letter now before us begins, as we observed when we formerly noticed a part of it, annexed to the last edition of Pilkington's Dictionary, (see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxv. p. 435.) with ridiculing a costly subscription formed by some individuals, to learn the Venetian colouring; as if it consisted merely in some mechanical secret; in covering the canvass first with body-colour; in the proportion of ceruse or vermilion to be mingled with linseed oil or soap of wax; or in the chemical purity of the muriate of lead employed to give the buff hue to the flesh. The peculiarity of Titian's colouring consists in his usually imitating nature when irradiated on all sides, or objects fully illuminated. Consequently, his boldest relief is always produced with the smallest possible discrepancy of tint.

No

No doubt, he usually exposed his models in broad and open daylight. All the colouring of the Chinese is executed on this principle. When they first saw the portrait of our King, they mistook the dark shade intended to give relief to the nose, for some injury which the picture had sustained during the voyage, and were preparing to efface it. Their painters not being in the habit of imitating objects partially illuminated, which the light reaches from one point only, had no conception that such contrasts of colour were ever to be found in nature. Some painters of the first rank affect catching lights: Guercino, if we rightly recollect, and Opie, are of the number. They purposely introduce their light through a single orifice, and from above, (*dungeon-painters*, the Italians call such,) and thus imitate a partially illuminated scene of nature. They consequently employ the greatest possible intervals of hue which nature can exhibit in the same figure. This mode of colouring * is precisely the reverse of that of Titian, but in its way is equally meritorious, and can be accomplished with the same pallet and canvass; it seems to result from a habit of practising in a room with a single sky-light. Indeed, the method of study pursued by the great artists will account for nearly all their peculiarities. Rubens, at one period, had probably crimson hangings to his painting-room; for at one time he constantly gave a redness to the dark shades of his flesh, which has all the appearance of reflected light.—Many English artists inhabit rooms with windows to the north. What is the consequence? They see all their models illuminated with a bluer light than that of day; and, if they faithfully imitate the nature before them, they steep their objects in a leaden twilight, and acquire that clay-cold colouring which is opposed to the mellow.

Mr. Barry next proceeds to enforce the importance of a public collection of antient art. In all lines of pursuit, it is so obviously necessary to consult the master-pieces of our predecessors, in order to attain excellence, that it seems strange to have instituted an Academy of Painting without first providing such a collection. His proposal was made to the Academicians in these terms:

"I also move, that some part of our property be laid out in the purchase of some one or more exemplars of ancient art, and a room or rooms to put them in. This beginning (which would come so gracefully and with such peculiar propriety from the Academy) would,

* Intensity of light and shade gives artificial prominence, and is therefore favourable to effect: but it can seldom be employed with probability, and is scarcely compatible with keeping.

with

with a generous public that only wants such an occasion of directing its energy, soon fructify and extend to a National Gallery *, which, whilst it would compleat the views of the Academy with respect to the education of its pupils, would also no less beneficially extend to the improvement and entertainment of the nation at large. There are many old famous pictures in this kingdom: whether any of these should be bestowed on this public gallery, or only lent to it for any given number of years, to be replaced by others, the end would be equally answered; and, by proper inscriptions on the frames, the public would know its benefactors, who would be paid in a glorious celebrity, proportioned to the utility and satisfaction they diffused.

" A proper attention to the obtaining these desiderata, would not only appear more becoming the reputation of the age and nation, and more consistent with the noble disinterested conduct hitherto adopted by the Academy, but would eventually and finally be more profitable and advantageous to the interests of superior artists, and the widows and relatives they may happen to leave behind them, than what has been proposed by dissipating this property of the Academy, in pensions annexed to the mere frequency of exhibition, without any regard to the degree of importance or contemptibility of the matter exhibited. Such a procedure would inevitably reverse all right, and produce mischief and dishonour instead of benefit. The nobler occasions of exertion do not so frequently occur as those that are paltry and worthless, not to say mischievous; and the answer of Æsop's Lioness in the fable, would admirably apply in this case. " *You produce a great many at a litter, and often; but what are they? Foxes. I indeed have but one at a time, but you should remember this one is a Lion.*" It is full time, Gentlemen, that we should recollect, in this Academy, that our art has the glory of being a *moral art*, with extensive means, peculiarly universal, and applicable to all ages and nations, to the improvement and deepest interests of society; and although, from the unfortunate combinations that sometimes occur, we have had more frequent occasion to decorate the exhibition walls with pictures of live or dead partridges, mackerel on deal boards, or such like human, or other trifling matters, every whit as unmeaning and inapplicable to any great or ethical purpose, yet surely, surely, if the Academy cannot every year gratify the public with a Gymnatium at Athens, or the Stadium at Olympia, it will ill become them to encourage, by their countenance and their pensions, so horrid and scandalous a reverse and degradation. These opinions, which I hope will meet the wishes of a majority of the Academicians, I am happy to deliver on such an occasion as the present, where they are so fairly, so necessarily called for! and that, whatever determination the Academy may choose to

* The famous Cartoons of Rafaelle, which were purchased with the public money, might stand gloriously at the head of such an academical or national gallery; or if they should be thought to occupy too much space, and that finely coloured oil pictures would be more immediately useful,—some of the Royal Palaces abound with works of Vandyck, of that description, which might be well spared. With such a nest-egg, and space, the rest would soon follow.'

adopt

adopt in this business, these sentiments, either in the way of advice or protest, must now, in the order of things, remain upon their books, for the inspection of those who may come after us, and who, it is to be hoped, will have other and higher views of the concerns of art, than those arising from the undue, political artifices of *combination* and *cabal.*"

Many particulars relative to the fate of this motion, to the election of new associates, to the selection of artists for executing the statues of Johnson, Howard, and Jones, and to other academic transactions, are given; which seem to indicate that the internal state of the Academy would admit of some improvement.

Occasionally, our author pays high compliments to David, a leading artist among the French. This is liberal, but is it also just? Have not the figures of David mostly that affected theatric grace, or turn, which is wholly occupied with the effect of its expression on the spectator, rather than with the passion expressed? His Horatii seem practised to swear. In grace, energy, and expression, do not his figures bear that relation to nature which a select actor does to an agent: as if the artist had studied the picturesque at the opera, and not in life?

Mr. Barry's general tinge of opinion well deserves to become an object of meditation. He considers Atheism as a destroying angel, let loose for a time only by the order of Providence, in moments of political corruption and convulsion, while *crimes are necessary* to effect the overthrow of mischievous institutions. He recommends the preservation of the Papal government, as a perennial fountain of the arts which humanize society, and of the religion which must again be invoked to heal the moral disorders of a revolutionary period. The speculation is worthy of Mr. Burke for the reverential piety which it displays, and for the luminous trains of idea which kindle and phosphoresce along its track. We cannot resist the pleasure of presenting our readers with a considerable extract.

"Would to Heaven that some great and good man, possessed of the eloquence of a Burke, a Rousseau, a Bossuet, or a Fenelon, should in this momentous crisis of Revolutions (when the happiness or misery of ages is pending upon the issue), come nobly forward, at any risk, as the blessed advocate for that constitution of things which is likely to be most productive of that happiness which results from intellectual, virtuous culture, and from those ingenious arts which constitute the very pabulum and nutriment of this virtue and culture of the intellect! The vindictive, tempestuous passions of our nature will be always sure to make ample provision for occasions of strife, for military establishments, and consequently for those modes of government which are best adapted to such views: although this is, perhaps, inevitable for the most part; yet one might hope there would be

be always found magnanimity enough in human nature to permit, as the Greeks had so gloriously, and for such a long time, permitted, a sacred territory apart governed by its own pacific laws, which were respected by all contending parties. There is nothing in all the Grecian story which can exhibit that very belligerent people in a more graceful, amiable, and becoming point of view, than their admirable, salutary, exemplary conduct in this particular; and yet, what could any man say of the sacred territory of Elis, that might not be affirmed (with many additional arguments of inexpressible advantage) of the Papal government at Rome? How easy would it be, without rashly destroying it, to weed out discreetly and prudently any of those defects and abuses which might attach from length of time, and from the very excusable infirmity ever inseparable from human nature in all conceivable situations and concerns! How easy, without loss of its dignity, to accommodate it to any existing circumstance! But there will be no need to wish for the eloquence of a great man, on an occasion so deeply interesting to humanity: the French are a wise and a great people, who have been long distinguished by their predilection for those arts which humanize, and are not likely to forego any occasions of practising their usual magnanimity. The Papal government cannot want persuasive advocates among a people so happily enlightened; and as for any republics that might grow up in Italy, they will be so well acquainted with the value of the Papal government, as to make every effort for preserving it in a flourishing state. The infinite importance of such a government as the Papal to the arts which humanize society, has been long an object of my deepest meditation; and I have before had occasion, in my printed letter to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, from the 24th to the 32d page, to touch a little upon the great and essential advantages derived to Europe from its connexion with the Papal government; and as it is impossible to reflect upon the growth and advancement of those arts which tend to meliorate and humanize society, without recurring to the same venerable source, I have, in the introductory Lecture to my Course in the Academy, been also led to take notice of a few particulars which, as they will come in very well here, I shall transcribe, without caring much whether it be digressing or not.

'It is curious to reflect, that the exertions of art seem to arise from the disappointment of the human mind, sated, disgusted, and tired with the monotony of the real persons and things which this world affords, so full of imperfection, and accompanied with so much misery, strife, and injustice. In proportion to the serenity and goodness of the mind, it naturally turns away from such a state of things, in search of some other, more grateful and consoling; and it has a natural horror of those atheistical cavils which would malignantly deprive it of all other resource, by mercilessly chaining it down to the scene before it. Hence it arises that the minds of men, in all ages and places, where they were at leisure, and happily relieved from the oppressions of war, tyrannies, and all their horrid train of consequent miseries, have naturally dilated and found consolation in the objects of religion, which they would anticipate and realize by their endeavours

vours to cut or carve them in blocks of wood or stone, whether detached from their parent rocks, and set up in high and honoured places of frequent resort, or, as was probably the more ancient way, cut into and making part of immense excavations, as is seen in the mountains of India. Whether the subject-matter of religion be well or ill reasoned upon in these detailed efforts; whether it be taken from the various incarnations of the Indian Vistnou, from the more elegant ideas and forms of the Greek Mythology, or from the more consoling, just, and happily adapted matter resulting from the more equitable rational hopes and fears inculcated by the Christian religion; yet the whole taken together forms an astonishing chain of the most indubitable proof of the extreme thirst of the mind for a more satisfactory state of things, and of its natural recurrence to the arts of design, as the first, the universal and most natural written language, which, in furnishing the means of expressing this universal testimony, affords a happy and the only opportunity of tracing human nature through an immense tract of ages; through India, Egypt, Greece, and Italy. And although whatever was not connected with the religion of those people, was not thought of as worthy the commemorating, yet many other matters and usages are luckily preserved by their incidental connexion with this superior matter, which otherwise would now be utterly lost to us; and, every thing fairly and fully considered, what should we have known of the ancient nations, their arts and knowledge, were it not for the stimulus which religion afforded to the human exertions? What other motives ever did or could supply its place?'—

'Notwithstanding the inevitable jarring from the varieties of men's dispositions, interests, and circumstances, yet it is a well known and a true maxim, That in all Republics or constitutions of society, according to whatever way the citizens are reared up, so they shall be found to be.—But, without entering upon abstract reasonings, on all the possible advantages that science and art might fairly derive from the doctrines of Christianity, from the suppression of barren selfishness, and fraternal equality, and the intellectual culture which, upon a just statement, will be found to form the tissue and the very essence of Christianity, we may even content ourselves with the mere matter of fact, as exhibited in the Papal Government at Rome; and there it has been abundantly apparent, that the time, the attention, and the wealth employed for the public in the culture of those arts and intellectual accomplishments which elevate human nature to its real dignity, above mere sensual and brutal existence, forms an æra in the history of mankind, not less new than admirable and amiable, more especially if we compare this pacific scene of intellectual exertion with the horrors and carnage of preceding military Governments of brutal force, under the pompous titles of Roman Commonwealth or Roman Empire, which for so many ages had deluged or disgraced the world. The name of Civil Society was, is, and ever will be, ill bestowed upon such hordes and combinations of robbers or assassins.

'Neither our time nor the subject we have in hand will allow us to go far in our remarks on this Pontifical Republic at Rome, this universal treasury and theatre for the culture and support of the education of Europe; where, throwing aside all privilege, rank, and claims

of

of family and primogeniture, every thing was devoted to the general promotion of intellect. All its honours and rewards, its mitres, purple hats, and tiara, accessible to all, to every condition, where superior worth and ability could be found, diffused such a spirit throughout Europe, as was best calculated to wrestle with the brutal ferocity of the dark Gothic ages, and, sooner or later, could not fail of being attended with the most extensive salutary effects. Their ascendancy and power derived from intellect: whatever could be gained in this way, was from the state of celibacy to which they had reduced themselves, necessarily dispensed in the way best calculated to furnish the means and increase to this ascendancy, and consequently in a manner most profitable to the world. It is to no purpose to cavil at those abuses which, from the frailty of man, will sometimes accompany the uses of the best things. We all know that the worst conceivable things are the abuses of the best; and we may therefore fairly and justly give them full credit for the early nurture, cultivation, and, I had almost said, mature and vigorous perfection of whatever we have most reason to value ourselves for, either as compared to the animals beneath us, or to the rest of our own species, scattered over the other parts of the globe. With respect to those arts which principally form the object of attention in this Academy, however pleasing it may be to reflect on the different monuments of their culture, in the churches and convents of the several countries of Europe; yet it was at Rome where all this intellectual influence concentrated; it was there that the mind was astonished, delighted, and enabled to contemplate with rapture, the sublimities to which art had arrived: and it will not be from our purpose to close these observations with remarking, that, even in the hereditary aristocracy at Venice, where the professions of arts and letters were foolishly considered as beneath the nobles, the commonalty intimidated at an awful distance, and consequently destitute of the necessary ambition of excelling, and there being no third estate, its effects in the arts may be seen accordingly; for whilst the human mind made the noblest excursions in the Vatican and Capella Sistina, under the auspices of the Roman Pontiffs, the genius of the Venetians was cultivating the mechanical branches of art, the colouring and chiaro-scuro, which Giorgione had imported from L. da Vinci, the Florentine.'

Some interesting anecdotes occur (p. 38, &c.) concerning Mr. Burke, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Mortimer, Hussey, and others. Good observations on patronage, also, are interwoven. Surely it is worth while to make some national provision for the growth of art *! Surely it is well worth while to uphold and strengthen the fastnesses of religion, by the powerful and lasting aid of painting and of sculpture! Surely our cathedrals might set the example of cherishing those labours of the artist, which are employed to promulgate the praiseworthy actions of the truly venerable founders of Christianity!

* Notwithstanding the pretended encouragement of the government, and the trumpeted praises of philosophers, art is perishing in France for want of demand.

ART. XII. *A Discourse on the Study of the Law of Nature and Nations*; introductory to a Course of Lectures on that Science, to be commenced in Lincoln's Inn Hall, *on Wednesday, Feb.* 20, 1799, in pursuance of an Order of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn. By James Mackintosh, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 70. 2s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE history of natural jurisprudence, of that great and comprehensive science which teaches and ascertains the duties of individuals and of states, though a truly noble and important subject, has never been considered in all its parts with the precision and attention which it deserves. The late Doctor Smith, at the close of his Theory of Moral Sentiments, made a promise to the world of dedicating his leisure and his talents to this vast and splendid undertaking: but, unhappily for mankind, he lived to complete only a part of his plan; and his *Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* extends alone to what concerns police, revenue, and arms.

In a course of lectures now delivering in Lincoln's Inn Hall, the author of the pamphlet before us proposes to discuss those various subjects which constitute and are comprised in the law of nature and nations; and in the present discourse he gives an outline of the plan which he intends to pursue. A short, but a clear and masterly account of the progress and present state of the science is given, and of that succession of able writers who have gradually brought it to its present high state of cultivation. From this part of the work, we cannot deny ourselves the satisfaction of presenting to our readers the finished portrait of GROTIUS;—of whom it may truly be said,

"*Qui nullum fere scribendi genus*
Non tetigit,—
Nullum quod tetigit non ornavit."

"The reduction of the law of nations to a system was reserved for Grotius. It was by the advice of Lord Bacon and Peiresc that he undertook this arduous task. He produced a work which we now indeed justly deem imperfect, but which is perhaps the most complete that the world has yet owed, at so early a stage in the progress of any science, to the genius and learning of one man. So great is the uncertainty of posthumous reputation, and so liable is the fame even of the greatest men to be obscured by those new fashions of thinking and writing which succeed each other so rapidly among polished nations, that Grotius, who filled so large a space in the eye of his contemporaries, is now perhaps known to some of my readers only by name. Yet if we fairly estimate both his endowments and his virtues, we may justly consider him as one of the most memorable men who have done honour to modern times. He combined the discharge of the most important duties of active and public life with

with the attainment of that exact and various learning which is generally the portion only of the recluse student. He was distinguished as an advocate and a magistrate, and he composed the most valuable works on the law of his own country; he was almost equally celebrated as an historian, a scholar, a poet, and a divine: a disinterested statesman, a philosophical lawyer, a patriot who united moderation with firmness, and a theologian who was taught candour by his learning. Unmerited exile did not damp his patriotism: the bitterness of controversy did not extinguish his charity. The sagacity of his numerous and fierce adversaries could not discover a blot on his character; and in the midst of all the hard trials and galling provocations of a turbulent political life, he never once deserted his friends when they were unfortunate, nor insulted his enemies when they were weak. In times of the most furious civil and religious faction he preserved his name unspotted, and he knew how to reconcile fidelity to his own party, with moderation towards his opponents. Such was the man who was destined to give a new form to the law of nations, or rather to create a science, of which only rude sketches and indigested materials were scattered over the writings of those who had gone before him. By tracing the laws of his country to their principles, he was led to the contemplation of the law of nature, which he justly considered as the parent of all municipal law *. Few works were more celebrated than that of Grotius in his own days, and in the age which succeeded. It has, however, been the fashion of the last half-century to depreciate his work as a shapeless compilation, in which reason lies buried under a mass of authorities and quotations. This fashion originated among French wits and declaimers, and it has been, I know not for what reason, adopted, though with far greater moderation and decency, by some respectable writers among ourselves. As to those who first used this language, the most candid supposition that we can make with respect to them is, that they never read the work; for, if they had not been deterred from the perusal of it by such a formidable display of Greek characters, they must soon have discovered that Grotius never quotes on any subject till he has first appealed to some principles, and often, in my humble opinion, though not always, to the soundest and most rational principles.

'But another sort of answer is due to some of those † who have criticized Grotius, and that answer might be given in the words of Grotius himself ‡. He was not of such a stupid and servile cast of mind, as to quote the opinions of poets or orators, of historians and philosophers, as those of judges, from whose decision there was no appeal. He quotes them, as he tells us himself, as witnesses whose conspiring testimony, mightily strengthened and confirmed by their discordance on almost every other subject, is a conclusive proof of the unanimity of the whole human race on the great rules of duty and the fundamental principles of morals. On such matters, poets and orators are

'* Provaia juris civilis.—De Jur. Bell. ac Pac. Proleg. § 36.'

'† Dr. Paley, Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy, Pref. p. xiv. and xv.'

'‡ Grot. Jur. Bel. et Pac. Proleg. § 40.'

the most unexceptionable of all witnesses; for they address themselves to the general feelings and sympathies of mankind; they are neither warped by system, nor perverted by sophistry; they can attain none of their objects; they can neither please nor persuade if they dwell on moral sentiments not in unison with those of their readers. No system of moral philosophy can surely disregard the general feelings of human nature, and the according judgment of all ages and nations. But where are these feelings and that judgment recorded and preserved? In those very writings which Grotius is gravely blamed for having quoted. The usages and laws of nations, the events of history, the opinions of philosophers, the sentiments of orators and poets, as well as the observation of common life, are, in truth, the materials out of which the science of morality is formed; and those who neglect them are justly chargeable with a vain attempt to philosophize without regard to fact and experience, the sole foundation of all true philosophy.

'If this were merely an objection of taste, I should be willing to allow that Grotius has indeed poured forth his learning with a profusion that sometimes rather encumbers than adorns his work, and which is not always necessary to the illustration of his subject. Yet, even in making that concession, I should rather yield to the taste of others than speak from my own feelings. I own that such richness and splendour of literature have a powerful charm for me. They fill my mind with an endless variety of delightful recollections and associations. They relieve the understanding in its progress through a vast science, by calling up the memory of great men and of interesting events. By this means we see the truths of morality clothed with all the eloquence (not that could be produced by the powers of one man, but) that could be bestowed on them by the collective genius of the world. Even Virtue and Wisdom themselves acquire new majesty in my eyes, when I thus see all the great masters of thinking and writing called together, as it were, from all times and countries, to do them homage, and to appear in their train.

'But this is no place for discussions of taste, and I am very ready to own that mine may be corrupted. The work of Grotius is liable to a more serious objection, though I do not recollect that it has ever been made. His method is inconvenient and unscientific. He has inverted the natural order. That natural order undoubtedly dictates, that we should first search for the original principles of the science in human nature; then apply them to the regulation of the conduct of individuals, and lastly, employ them for the decision of those difficult and complicated questions that arise with respect to the intercourse of nations. But Grotius has chosen the reverse of this method. He begins with the consideration of the states of peace and war, and he examines original principles only occasionally and incidentally as they grow out of the questions which he is called upon to decide. It is a necessary consequence of this disorderly method, which exhibits the elements of the science in the form of scattered digressions, that he seldom employs sufficient discussion on these fundamental truths, and never in the place where such a discussion would be most instructive to the reader.

On

On the subject of this great man, the opinions of Dr. Smith and Mr. Mackintosh perfectly coincide. The former learned writer says:

"Grotius seems to have been the first who attempted to give the world any thing like a system of those principles which ought to run through and be the foundation of the laws of all nations; and his treatise of the laws of war and peace, with all its imperfections, is perhaps at this day the most complete work that has yet been given upon this subject."

In enumerating the advantages enjoyed by a writer of the present day, which were not possessed by Grotius and other celebrated jurists, Mr. Mackintosh mentions that there has been introduced into the schools a more simple and intelligible philosophy than that which prevailed in the last century. He then points out the benefit resulting from the investigations of historians, and from the various accounts of travellers and navigators; which he has performed with so much eloquence and discrimination, that we shall lay the passage before our readers, and thus enable them to judge of the high *literary* merit of the present discourse.

'Since that time, vast additions have been made to the stock of our knowledge of human nature. Many dark periods of history have since been explored. Many hitherto unknown regions of the globe have been visited and described by travellers and navigators not less intelligent than intrepid. We may be said to stand at the confluence of the greatest number of streams of knowledge flowing from the most distant sources, that ever met at one point. We are not confined, as the learned of the last age generally were, to the history of those renowned nations who are our masters in literature. We can bring before us man in a lower and more abject condition than any in which he was ever before seen. The records have been partly opened to us of those mighty empires of Asia *, where the beginnings of civilization are lost in the darkness of an unfathomable antiquity. We can make human society pass in review before our mind, from the brutal and helpless barbarism of *Terra del Fuego*, and the mild and voluptuous savages of Otaheite, to the tame, but ancient and immoveable civiliza-

'* I cannot prevail on myself to pass over this subject without paying my humble tribute to the memory of Sir W. Jones, who has laboured so successfully in Oriental literature, whose fine genius, pure taste, unwearied industry, unrivalled and almost prodigious variety of acquirements, not to speak of his amiable manners and spotless integrity, must fill every one who cultivates or admires letters with reverence, tinged with a melancholy which the recollection of his recent death is so well adapted to inspire. I hope I shall be pardoned if I add my applause to the genius and learning of Mr. Maurice, who treads in the steps of his illustrious friend, and who has bewailed his death in a strain of genuine and beautiful poetry, not unworthy of happier periods of our English literature.'

tion of China, which bestows its own arts on every successive race of conquerors; to the meek and servile natives of Hindostan, who preserve their ingenuity, their skill and their science, through a long series of ages, under the yoke of foreign tyrants; to the gross and incorrigible rudeness of the Ottomans, incapable of improvement, and extinguishing the remains of civilization among their unhappy subjects, once the most ingenious nations of the earth. We can examine almost every imaginable variety in the character, manners, opinions, feelings, prejudices and institutions of mankind, into which they can be thrown, either by the rudeness of barbarism, or by the capricious corruptions of refinement, or by those innumerable combinations of circumstances, which, both in these opposite conditions and in all the intermediate stages between them, influence or direct the course of human affairs. History, if I may be allowed the expression, is now a vast museum, in which specimens of every variety of human nature may be studied. From these great accessions to knowledge, lawgivers and statesmen, but, above all, moralists and political philosophers, may reap the most important instruction. They may plainly discover in all the useful and beautiful variety of governments and institutions, and under all the fantastic multitude of usages and rites which have prevailed among men, the same fundamental, comprehensive truths, the sacred master-principles which are the guardians of human society, recognised and revered (with few and slight exceptions) by every nation upon earth, and uniformly taught (with still fewer exceptions) by a succession of wise men from the first dawn of speculation to the present moment. The exceptions, few as they are, will, on more reflection, be found rather apparent than real. If we could raise ourselves to that height from which we ought to survey so vast a subject, these exceptions would altogether vanish; the brutality of a handful of savages would disappear in the immense prospect of human nature, and the murmurs of a few licentious sophists would not ascend to break the general harmony. This consent of mankind in first principles, and this endless variety in their application, which is one among many valuable truths which we may collect from our present extensive acquaintance with the history of man, is itself of vast importance. Much of the majesty and authority of virtue is derived from their consent, and almost the whole of practical wisdom is founded on their variety.'

The proposed course of lectures 'will open with a very short, and (as Mr. M. expresses the hope) a very simple and intelligible account of the powers and operations of the human mind.' He will then proceed to a consideration of the relative duties of human life, especially of those which arise out of the two great institutions of property and marriage; and having established the principles of private duty, he proposes to consider man under the important relation of subject and sovereign, or, in other words, of citizen and magistrate. In this division of his subject, the author will examine the general frame of the most celebrated governments of antient and modern times, and especially of those which have been most renowned

nowned for their freedom; concluding with an account of the constitution of England. The general principles of civil and criminal laws will then be discussed, with a comparative review of the codes of Rome and of England. The next great division will be the law of nations, strictly and properly so called; the *Jus Feciale* of the Romans, and what the Chancellor d'Aguesseau accurately terms '*Droit entre les Gens.*' As an important supplement to his plan, or rather as a necessary part of it, Mr. M. will conclude with a survey of *the diplomatic and conventional law of Europe*, and an account of the treaties of Westphalia, of Oliva, of the Pyrenees, of Breda, of Nimeguen, of Ryswick, of Utrecht, of Aix-la-Chapelle, of Paris (1763), and of Versailles (1783).

Such is the outline of the vast, arduous, and magnificent undertaking which Mr. Mackintosh has here delineated; and for which his nice talent of discrimination, his accurate and extensive knowlege, his fine taste, and his fertile powers of illustration, seem eminently to qualify him. He concludes his pamphlet with the following just and eloquent passages:

'Though the course, of which I have sketched the outline, may seem to comprehend so great a variety of miscellaneous subjects, yet they are all in truth closely and inseparably interwoven. The duties of men, of subjects, of princes, of lawgivers, of magistrates, and of states, are all parts of one consistent system of universal morality. Between the most abstract and elementary maxim of moral philosophy, and the most complicated controversies of civil or public law, there subsists a connexion which it will be the main object of these lectures to trace. The principle of justice, deeply rooted in the nature and interest of man, pervades the whole system, and is discoverable in every part of it, even to its minutest ramification in a legal formality, or in the construction of an article in a treaty.

'I know not whether a philosopher ought to confess, that in his inquiries after truth he is biassed by any consideration; even by the love of virtue. But I, who conceive that a real philosopher ought to regard truth itself chiefly on account of its subserviency to the happiness of mankind, am not ashamed to confess, that I shall feel a great consolation at the conclusion of these lectures, if, by a wide survey and an exact examination of the conditions and relations of human nature, I shall have confirmed but one individual in the conviction, that justice is the permanent interest of all men, and of all commonwealths. To discover one new link of that eternal chain by which the Author of the universe has bound together the happiness and the duty of his creatures, and indissolubly fastened their interests to each other, would fill my heart with more pleasure than all the fame with which the most ingenious paradox ever crowned the most eloquent sophist.

'I shall conclude this Discourse in the noble language of two great orators and philosophers, who have, in a few words, stated the substance, the object, and the result of all morality, and politics, and law.

"Nihil est quod adhuc de republicâ putem dictum, et quo possim longius progredi, nisi sit confirmatum, non modo falsum esse illud, sine injuriâ non posse, sed hoc verissimum, sine summâ justitiâ rempublicam regi non posse."—*Cic. Frag. lib.* ii. *de Repub.*

"Justice is itself the great standing policy of civil society, and any eminent departure from it, under any circumstances, lies under the suspicion of being no policy at all."—*Burke's Works*, vol. iii. p. 207.*

With this extract we close our account of this preliminary Discourse; and we trust that our readers will be gratified with the length of our quotations, when they consider the great ability which they manifest, and the very comprehensive and important matter to which they are introductory.

ART. XIII. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΕΚΑΒΗ. *Euripidis Hecuba, ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendata*, &c.

ART. XIV. IN EURIPIDIS HECUBAM *Londini nuper publicatam Diatribe extemporalis. Composuit* Gilbertus Wakefield.

ART. XV. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΟΡΕΣΤΗΣ. *Euripidis Orestes, ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendata*, &c.

[Continued from p. 101.]

THE examination of Mr. Wakefield's objections to Mr. Porson's Hecuba was begun in our last Review; and, from the nature of the criticisms proposed in the Diatribe, it was necessary to investigate every remark deeply, and to offer at full length our own sentiments respecting the editor and the animadvertor. We propose to proceed on the same plan, and beg to solicit a continuance of the indulgent patience of our readers.

165. Ποῖ δ' ἥσω; ποῦ τις θεῶν——ἔστ' ἐπαφωλός;

R. P. '*Pro* ποῦ *Musgravius* πόδα *conjecit; recepit Brunckius.*'

G. W. '*Illud* δ' *otiosum est; ut oratio manca insuper, et ne Græca quidem.*——*Si rescribas,* ποι Μ' ἥσω; *Quo me immittam? habebis id, quo nihil purius*, &c. &c.—*sed quoniam cessat in hoc systemate subinde anapæsticorum lex, malim equidem rescribi:*—— ποι ΠΟΔ' ἥσω;——' Some part of the honour supposed to be derived from this emendation should have been given to Musgrave; whose correction we deem preferable to that of Mr. W. '*Legendum, ni fallor:* ποῖ δ' ἥσω πόδα; τίς θεῶν—' says the former, in his note; which led the way to πόδα—the position of which word, in the variation of the conjecture proposed by the latter, totally destroys the anapestic form; and though, as Mr. W. justly observes, the verses are irregular, yet we are of opinion that all emendations, founded on possible anomalies, whether in construction or metre, are hazardous, and ought to be carefully avoided.

The

The insertion of πόδα, the correction of Musgrave in the text of this line, by Brunck, seems to us right: the alteration itself is commended by the authors of the *Bibliotheca Critica*.

167. ὦ κἀκ' ἐνεγκοῦσαι πήμαΓ' ———

Here Mr. Porson is silent. Mr. Wakefield changes πήμαΓ, into ΦΗΜΑΤ', which he defends by 107. ἀγγελίας βάρος ἀραμένα—by Helen. 1297. φήμας—ἐνεγκών (*Musgr.* 1301.) and refers to Hecuba, 178. 668.

To this alteration we cannot assent. We think that it is totally unnecessary, and that it even weakens the sentence. Are all figurative expressions to be banished from the antient poets? In this play, is v. 663 to be molested: Ἐκάβη, ΦΕΡΩ τόδ' ΑΛΓΟΣ;—What is to be done with Eschylus, *Agamemn.* 873?

Καὶ τὸν μὲν ἥκειν, τὸν δ' ἐπειστΦΕΡΕΙΝ κακῶς
Κἄπιον ἄλλο ΠΗΜΑ.—And again, 647:
Ὅταν δ' ἀπευκὲς ΠΗΜΑΤ', ἄγγελος πόλει
Σίγῳ προσώπῳ πλῶσιμον σἰρᾶδον ΦΕΡΗΙ—

To these passages others may be added, in which φέρειν πήμαΓα bears the sense of φέρειν ἄγγελίαν πημαΓων, or ἀγγέλλειν πήμαΓα. We cannot here transcribe Mr. W.'s note, nor repeat his references; the curious reader may consult the *Diatribe*, p. 15.

180. —— Τί μέαν
Καρύξασ' οἴκων μ', ὥσΓ' ὄρνιν
Θαμβεῖ τῷδ' ἐξέπλαξας;

182. R. P. is silent. G. W. gives the following note:

'*At enim expergiscimini*, VV. DD. *qui Euripidem nobis expolistis; atque edissertetis velim, quidnam sit hoc phraseos,* ἐκπλῆσσειν οἴκων τινα. *Mussant, et nihil habent, quod respondeant. Forsan tamen, vir acutissime et πολυμαθεσίαΓε! amicus ille tuus, qui me subdole et minus candide in Æschyla Glasguensi recensendo nuper impetiverit ex latebris,*

Τυφλοις ὀρνίθας οὐσας τοξευμασι'

(homunculum, studiis improbissimis inter has temporum angustias victum difficilem sibi suisque vix, aut ne vix quidem, extundentem) hæc et alia miracula speciosa mox in lucem prolaturus sit! Dixerim interea, et edixerim, in ultimam barbariem relegandum esse hoc dicendi genus: nos adeo videndi ad Eur. H. F. 976. 987. *Ion.* 1299. *Nimirum, vel capiendum est pro* ἐξεπλάσας, *a* πλάω, πλήμι, volo; *vel scribendum* ἐξεπλοασας, *a* πτοιεω, terreo. *Utrum mavis accipe.*'

The whole of the note is transcribed. To whom Mr. Wakefield refers, and applies his quotation from the *Hercules Furens* 197. it would be presumption in us to attempt to determine.—"Let the gall'd jade wince, our withers are unwrung." Mr. W. cannot allude to the Monthly Reviewers' critique on the Glasgow Eschylus, which should have been Mr. Porson's edition. Some critic has probably brought forwards Schutz's remarks

on

on Mr. Wakefield's Eumenides, and has been comparing the three editions, and the M. Reviewers' strictures, together. To some such animadversions this passage may perchance relate, though they have not reached us; and, indeed, we are rarely tempted to dive into the mysteries of contemporary critics. Our article, if we be not grossly misinformed, has been commended by liberal scholars, on account of the temperate observations which it contained.——The person to whom Mr. W. alludes may possibly reply: but, at all events, it is our duty to mention the passage, and the note. We shall venture also, it is hoped without offence, to add one remark.

Πτασσω is the Doric form of the verb Πτήσσω, and Ἐξέπλαξας stands by the same dialect for Ἐξέπηξας, the first aorist.

The usage of Πτήσσω in an active sense, and the lection Ἐξέπταξας, which Mr. Porson is censured by Mr. Wakefield for having permitted to remain in Euripides, though there is no variation in the preceding editions, and appears to be none in the MSS., may be defended by the authority of Homer, *Iliad* ξ. 40.

——Ὁ δὲ ξύμβλητο γεραιὸς
Νέστωρ, ΠΤΗΞΕ δὲ ΘΥΜΟΝ ἐνὶ στήθεσσιν Ἀχαιῶν.

"*Is vero obviam—factus—est senex Nestor, perterrefecitque animum in pectoribus Achivorum.*" CLARK.

In this passage, the Scholiasts state, Herodian reads ΠΗΞΕ, —but Aristarchus, the genuine Aristarchus, preferred ΠΤΗΞΕ. On this authority, the former editors of Euripides, and Mr. Porson, may be defended for having left the word Ἐξέπλαξας in the text of Hecuba. Thus write the commentators:

Schol. *MSS. Lips.* Ἡρωδιανὸς Πῆξεν ἀποδέχεται——Ἀρίσταρχος δὲ Πτῆξεν, ἀπὸ τοῦ Ἐκπαγίνωσεν ἢ Ἐπτόησεν.—Valcken. *Dissert. de Schol. Hom.* p. 130. et Ernest. *ad loc.*

Schol. *Venet. Villoison.* Πτῆξε] Οὕτως διὰ τοῦ Τ οἱ Ἀριστάρχου, Πτῆξεν εἰς φόβον ἔπεσεν. Οὕτως καὶ Ἀριστοφάνης.

Eustathius *in Iliad* Ξ. 40. πῆξε—τυπτόντων ἐθορύβησεν, ἐτάραξεν—Σημείωσαι δὲ ὅτι τὸ Πτῆξε. καθὸ ἀλλοπάθειαν ἔφη, φησὶ τοῦ εἰς πλοίαν ἐκίνησεν, οὐ μὴν κοινότερον ἀδιοπαθῶς, ἀπὸ τοῦ ἐπλοήθη. p. 950. 16. Ed. Basil. 966. 16. Ed. Rom.

Hesychius: Πτῆξεν, εἰς φόβον ἔπεσεν. He also, as might be expected, explains the other lection, Πῆξε, as Ruhnken has not omitted to observe in his *Auctarium*, *ad* Il. 1072.

The explanation of *Damm* stands thus: Πτήσσω—*terreo, animum concidere facio*:—*est—verbum transitivum, καὶ ἀλλοπάθειαν intelligendum, non vero ἀδιοπαθῶς. Sic leg. pro ἀδιοπαθῶν.* Lexic. 2020.

These

These observations appear to exhibit an ample justification of Mr. Porson, for not violating the text of his Hecuba; and we did not judge it right that they should be suppressed.

In addition to these remarks, we shall transcribe part of a note by Mr. Porson, on the Orestes, in which he cites this passage of the Hecuba:

'*Quidni*——Ἀναλάλυκλε *tam bene pro* ἀναλαλύκλου, *subaudito pronomine, ponatur, quam* καλαπαύσας *pro* καλαπαυσάμενος, *Hec.* 912. ἔκτιγα *pro* ἐπτίγου *infra* 788. (*ubi MS. unus* ἐπτίγου) *et alibi.* ἔγκιρε *pro* ἐγκίρου *Iph.* A. 626?——*Contra verba quædam ex neutrali transitivam induunt significationem, ut,* ἐκπλήσσειν ξίφη, *Hec.* 181. 532. *quæ insani esset solicitare.*'

R. Porsonus, *in* Eurip. Orest. 288.

201. ὦ δυσλάινου μᾶτερ βιόλας.

Mr. Porson here also is silent: Mr. W. says:

'*Me fidejussore, tu statim corrigas audacter:*

ὦ ΔΥΣΤΑΝΑ μᾶτερ βιόλας,

ut pariter centies in Tragicis; neque aliter, uti jam video, scholiastes. Noster H. F. 482.

Ἐμοὶ δὲ δάκρυα, λοιδορᾶ' δυσλήνου ΦΡΕΝΩΝ.

Hinc V. D. optimè correxit Ver. 215. *infra; quemadmodum et ipse reponendum esse statim viderim.*'

This correction we deem totally inadmissible. Δύσληνος occurs, indeed, frequently with a Genitive case after it: but the word Δύσληνα, *Doricè* Δύσλανα, is only used in the Greek plays as a Neuter plural. The Vocative singular is Δύσληνε, or Δύσλανε, *Dor.*: as is evident from the very line in which Mr. W. informs us he made the same alteration which is proposed by Mr. Porson. Hecuba, 215. ὦ μᾶτερ ΔΥΣΤΑΝΕ.

Lest it should be attempted to change the termination into A in this instance also, a few unalterable and incontrovertible examples of this Vocative feminine shall be produced:

EURIPIDES. *Androm.* The attendant addresses Andromache:

68. Τὸν παῖδα σοῦ μέλλουσιν, ὦ ΔΥΣΤΗΝΕ σύ,
Κτανεῖν——

Again, Hermione says to Andromache:

170. Εἰς τοῦτο δ' ἦκεις ἀμαθίας, ΔΥΣΤΗΝΕ σύ;

Orest. The messenger to Electra:

842. Ὦ τλῆμον, ὦ ΔΥΣΤΗΝΕ τοῦ σφαγέως πατρὸς
Ἀγαμέμνονος παῖ.——

Med. Creon to his dying daughter:

1216. ——Ὦ δύσληνε παῖ,
Τίς δ' ἀτίμως, δαιμόνων σ' ἀπώλεσε;

Troad. 512. Δύσληνε γύναι.——

So also in comedy. ARISTOPHANES. *Eccles.* Praxagora exclaims to one of the female spouters:

166. Γυ-

166. Γυναῖκας ἄν, ΔΥΣΤΗΝΕ, τοὺς ἄνδρας λέγεις.

The feminine Δύσηνος occurs frequently in the Attic poets; and it is of this gender, in the very example cited by Mr. Wakefield in his note from the Hercules Furens, 482. where *Megara*, the wife of Hercules, exclaims of herself: Δύσηνος φρενῶν.

Mr. W. also observes that δυσλάνα is the lection of the Scholiast. We wish that the Scholion had been quoted, as our search after it has proved fruitless. In Barnes's Euripides we find the following, which is omitted by Musgrave: ὦ παντλήμων [l. πανλήμον] καὶ πανωθλία, ὦ μῆτερ, ἕνεκα τῆς ΔΥΣΤΗΝΟΥ καὶ ἀ'θλίας βιοτῆς καὶ ζωῆς.

In this note, the Scholiast, so far from justifying Δυσλάνα as the Vocative feminine, properly vindicates the old reading Δυσλάνη.

232. Mr. Porson's change of τι into τοι, on the authority of Eumathius, is commended by Mr. W.; who observes that τι is the lection also of Stobæus, Ecl. III. p. 36. which reference Mr. P. has omitted. He appears, indeed, to mention only those citations of the antients in which his author is quoted with any variety of lection.—Mr. W. adds that he had fallen on this very alteration of τι into τοι, many years ago.

The same mode of correcting defective passages must frequently occur to different scholars: but the merit of all emendations must be attributed to the writer by whom they are first published.

246. ἴψανσέ μου, and 247. καὶεἶπ' ἐμοί.

G. W. '*Videas et in transitu mireris, hic atque per totam fabulam V. D. in his scribendis obstupescendam sane inconstantiam.*'

After a careful examination of Mr. Porson's editions of Hecuba and Orestes, we are decidedly of opinion, instead of joining in this censure, that he deserves the commendation of his readers for this variation. If there had been no emphasis in the latter instance, he would have given καὶεἶπέ μοι, as in *Orest.* 1073.—μὴ ξύνθινσχέ μοι. In the former also, if any emphasis had been demanded, he would have published ἴψανσ' ἐμοῦ.

Brunck intended to have observed the same distinction, as he informs us in a note on Eur. *Phœn.* 852, where he points out the difference between εἶπέ μοι, and εἶπ' ἐμοί, and between κλήρους τ' ἐμοὶ φύλασσε, and κλήρους τέ μοι. He has not always preserved this variation of ἐμοῦ and μου accurately: but his observations will be of service to any reader who may have doubts on the subject. They are too long for transcription: but we shall add a short note from Mr. Porson, in order that he may explain, in his own words, whence this *obstupescenda inconstantia*

constantia arose; and what his views were, in printing the oblique cases singular of the pronouns substantive, in some passages *accented*, as: ἐμοῦ, ἐμοὶ, ἐμὲ, κ. τ. λ. and in others with the accent on the *finalis syllaba vocis præcedentis*, as enclitics, μου, μοι, με, κ. τ. λ.

' Orest. 514. Οὐκ σὺ. *sic edidi ex H. J. cum vulgo sit* Οὐκ σύ. *Leve est, sed semel duxi monendum, me in pronominibus accentu signandis aut non signandis sententiæ et emphaseos rationem semper habuisse.*'

269. Mr. W. again commends Mr. Porson's insertion of προσφάγμαλα in his text; though, as on v. 41., he wishes to double the *sigma*, and refers to his notes on Soph. *Philoct.* 35. on *Lucretius*, IV. 591. and 678. and to his *Silva Crit.* IV. p. 49.—In the first of these places, it may be remarked as we proceed, Mr. Wakefield mentions the *Schema Alcmanicum*, and quotes *Ammonius*, (he should have said *Lesbonax*,) and his learned editor, p. 179., and cites a memorable instance of this figure from Villoison's *Anecdota Græca*, II. 96.

This citation, which should have been produced as from Herodian's work περὶ σχημάτων, first published by Villoison, is also quoted with some variation by the Scholiast on Pindar, Pyth. IV. 318.; from whom Valckenaer inserted it in his note on Lesbonax, p. 180.; which he thus concludes: "*e quo* Alcmanis *loco, si quis voces ἱππόται σοφοὶ, veluti alienas tolli velit, me certè sibi adversum non habebit.*" It is to be mentioned that Eustathius, who has preserved this fragment, *in Odyss.* K. p. 410. *Edit. Basil.* omits these very two words. This reference and its remarkable variations escaped the truly learned Valckenaer; and Mr. Wakefield has not noticed Pindar's Scholiast and Eustathius, and the lections which they afford.

In the last of these references, *Silva Crit.* IV. 171. Mr. W. commends a stricture on the Philoctetes of Sophocles, published in the Appendix to Toup, IV. 503., which he attributes to Mr. Porson; and he cites τεχνάσμαλα, in capital letters, from the Orest. of Euripides, 1051. as if it were a new reading. He rightly, however, compares the προσφάγμαλα of the Hecuba, with the τεχνάσμαλα of the Orestes. Mr. Porson in his note on the former, *Hec.* 269. refers us to his observations on the *Orest.* 1051. in which he produces some examples of neuter plurals, applied to single objects. In neither of these annotations, the one published before the *Diatribe*, and the other after it, has Mr. Porson mentioned the name nor the remark of Mr. Wakefield: but he has treated with equal neglect even the "*Notæ breves ad Toupii Emendationes in Suidam, A. R. P. C. S. S. T. C. S.*"

284. Hecuba, in her address to Ulysses, says of her daughter Polyxena:

Ἦ ἀντὶ πολλῶν ἐστί μοι παραψυχή,
Πόλυς, τεθνῆναι, βάσιλεον, ἠγεμῶν ὁδοῦ.

Mr. Porson produces a similar passage from a fragment of Euripides quoted by Alexander, one of the Aldine rhetoricians, p. 578. Musgrav. *inter incert.* CLXXXV.——ὦδε μοι τροφός,
Μῆτερ, ἀδελφὲ, δμωΐς, ἀγκυρα, σέγη.

Mr. W. complains that Mr. Porson did not judge his correction of ΠΟΣΙΣ for ΠΟΛΙΣ worth mentioning; though it was proposed in his *Silv. Crit. Sect.* 175. in which the new reading is defended by Homer, Il. Z. 429. where Hector is called by Andromache, πάτηρ, μήτηρ, κασίγνητος, παρακόϊτης. In his *Diatribe*, Mr. W. allows that the present lection derives some support from Eustathius, *de Ismen. Am.* p. 205. *; yet still he contends for the admission of Ποσις, and refers the *vere candidos ac venustos* to seven different passages, which we shall beg leave to examine.

I. The passage from the sixth ILIAD, which has been just mentioned. This does not apply; for though Andromache might properly call Hector παρακόϊτης, yet Hecuba could not on that account style her daughter Polyxena ΠΟΣΙΣ.

II. EUR. *Alcest.* 657. 658. Here Admetus tells Pheres, that he justly reckons his wife to be both father and mother. This does not defend ΠΟΣΙΣ.

III. TROAD. 107. Here Hecuba says, speaking of herself: Πάλεις ἔρρει, καὶ τέκνα, καὶ πόσις. Does it follow, because she had lost her country, her children, and her husband, that she would therefore call her daughter ΠΟΣΙΣ;

IV. *The* TRAGIC *Verses*, quoted by Diogenes Laertius, VI. 38. vol. 1. p. 332. The lines are:

Πλάνης, ἄοικος, παλιρίδος ἐσλεγμένος,
Πτωχὸς, δυσείμων, βίον ἔχων ταὐφημέραν.

In the former, we have taken πλάνης from Elian. V. H. III. 29. instead of ἄπολις, the reading in Laertius, and Julian Orat. VI. p. 195. B. and in *Epist. ad Themistium*, p. 255. It seems to be a gloss, explanatory of παλιρίδος σεσηπημένος. In the latter also, δυσείμων, instead of πλανήτης, from Elian.—If any defender of Ἄπολις should arise, we shall not vehemently contend for our reading. In whichever mode, however, these iambics are to stand, they surely cannot be deemed the slight-

* The passage is: Σύ μοι πάλις, καὶ πάτηρ, καὶ μήτηρ, καὶ πάσλαις, καὶ νύμφιος, καὶ δεσπότης ἐξ ἔρωτος.

est

last defence of Hecuba applying to her daughter the word ΠΟΣΙΣ.

V. Ovid. *Epist.* III. 52. Briseis writes thus to Achilles:

"*Tot tamen amissis*———

"*Tu Dominus, tu Vir, tu mihi frater eras.*"

Briseis might call Achilles, Vir: but would Hecuba therefore term her daughter, Πόσις;

VII. Antholog. *Lat. Burmanni.* 1. 161. 1. The line is:

"*Prole, viro, regnoque carens Priameïa conjunx.*"

This privation, which seems copied from the verse in the *Troad.* 107. would not, we apprehend, lead the wife of Priam to call her daughter ΠΟΣΙΣ.

From a due consideration of the new reading, and the citations produced to defend it, we are compelled to adhere to the old lection Πολις.

Mr. W. next contends that the word Ἄπολις, *cityless*, in Hecub. 669. 805. and Troad. 1186. should be changed into Ἄποσις, husbandless.

The compound Ἄποσις, as far as our recollection extends, does not occur in any Greek writer of any age, nor of any dialect. The introduction of Vocables, which depend merely on analogy for their formation, and which are not authorized by some good writer, cannot, in our opinion, be too cautiously avoided. Ἄπολις, therefore, a sound, genuine, and established word, which perfectly suits the sense of the three passages, should not be banished in order to favour the admission of this newly-created Ἄποσις.——In the first passage of the Hecuba, also, ἄπολις is preceded by ἀνανδρος. Mr. Wakefield has not informed us how the two ἀνανδρος and ἄποσις, in the same verse, are to be translated; nor would either of the other two places, according to our view of the poet's meaning, even if ἄποσις were not an imaginary word, be improved by receiving it instead of ἄπολις.

On V. 286. Mr. W. properly remarks the omission of a various reading, which he has carefully noted from Stobæus, CIII. p. 561. This should have been specified by Mr. Porson; who, however, refers in his notes to the citation. As to the text of the Hecuba, we think that the passage would lose much of its force by changing the plural, which is the present reading, into the singular, τὸν πολοῦντα, which Stobæus exhibits.—Mr. W. we find, is of a different opinion.——

297. Τὸ δ' ἀξίωμα, κἂν κακῶς λέγῃς, τὸ σὸν
Πείσει.

Thus Mr. Porson publishes the passage, as it is silently corrected by Muretus, III. p. 593. in opposition to all the *Edd. Vett.*

Vett. and MSS., Gellius, and Stobæus. Your dignity, *though you speak ill*, will persuade; instead of, *though it speak ill*.

Mr. W. censures this introduction of '*locutio vulgaris*, λέγης, *pro exquisitissimâ* λέγῃ.'—Let the learned decide whether λέγης or λέγῃ be the true reading. We shall only observe that the addition of the sigma by Muretus is not warranted by this insertion of Mr. Porson only; for λέγης is proposed, as a *new* conjecture, by Wasse, in the *Miscell. Observat.* II. p. 93. Λέγης is commended by Musgrave; Λέγης is adopted by Valckenaer, who quotes this passage, DIATRIBE, p. 261. Λέγης is praised by Brunck, who gives it a place in his text; and Λέγης,—if the opinion be worth recording,—is judged to be the genuine lection by the Monthly Review.

321. Καὶ μὴν ἔμοιγε ζῶντι μὲν καθ' ἡμέραν,
Κεἰ σμικρ' ἔχοιμι, πάντ' ἂν ἀρκοῦντως ἔχοι·
Τίμιον δὲ βουλοίμην ἂν ἀξιούμενον
Τὸν ἐμὸν ὁρᾶσθαι. διὰ μακροῦ γὰρ ἡ χάρις.

R. P. is silent.——G. W. proposes a new punctuation; and then asserts that ἀξιοῦσθαι is never used '*sine substantivo præ nostrâ*,' and therefore, '*rescripsimus* TIMΩN *pro* τον εμον.—*Rursus, si* γόνιμος *pro* γενναιος *nobilis, laxiore sensu ferri poterat*, ΓONIMON *a vestigiis literarum* TONEMON, *de veteri scripturâ, propius abfuisset.*'

Mr. Wakefield's SECOND emendation ΓONIMON is in direct violation of the canon which he lays down as a proof that the FIRST, TIMΩN, is necessary.—If it were true that ἀξιούμενον requires a substantive after it, how is the deficiency supplied by the substitution of ΓONIMON for TON EMON;

Eustathius, whose remark has escaped the editors, refers to this part of Ulysses's speech, *in Il.* H'. *p.* 535. *Ed. Bas.* II. p. 666. 44. *Ed. Rom.* Ἐπὶ τούτοις ὁ Ἕκτωρ καὶ τὸ τέλος τῆς ἑαυτοῦ ἐφέσεως ἐκλίθειαν, δηλαδὴ τὴν τιμὴν, εἰπών· [Il. H. 91.]

Ὡς πόλέ τις ἐρέει, τὸ δ' ἐμὸν πλέος οὔποθ' ὀλεῖται. ὅθὴ παρέφρασε καὶ ὁ ἐν τῇ Τραῳωδίᾳ εἰπὼν, ἐθέλειν τὸν αὐλοῦ τύλβον μετὰ θανάτου σφανοῦσθαι. διὰ μακροῦ γαρ, φησιν, ἡ χάρις. The quotation, which immediately follows, is from the *Medea*, 547.

These words διὰ μακροῦ γὰρ ἡ χάρις are also illustrated by him, p. 568. 40. and in Iliad K. 720. 15. Ὅτι δὲ φύσει χαίρουσιν οἱ πλείους τοῖς εἰς ἑαυτοὺς ἐπαίνοις, δηλοῖ καὶ ὁ μέλλ θάναλον σφαπουσθαι τὸν ἑαυτοῦ τάφον ἐθέλων τῆς διὰ μακροῦ χάριτος ἕνεκα. He then cites the same passage from Medea, which he had quoted in Iliad H.

We should strongly have suspected that Eustathius found in the place;

Τίμιον δὲ βουλοίμην ἂν ἀξιούμενον
Στεφάνων ὁρᾶσθαι,——

if

if he had not so carefully inserted τὸν αὐλοῦ and τὸν ἐαυτοῦ τύμβον μᾶλλ' θάναλον; which shews that τὸν ἐμὸν was in his copy of the Hecuba. Eustathius, therefore, explains ἀξιοῦσθαι by στεφανοῦσθαι, and Euripides himself uses ἀξιούμενον in the same sense as he does τιμώμενον, in 320. It may also be noted that, where a person speaks of himself, the pronoun should rather be doubled than omitted; as here τὸν ἐμὸν follows ἐμοίγε, and in the *Hippol.* 49.

Τὸ μὴ οὐ παρασχεῖν ΤΟΥΣ ΈΜΟΥΣ ἐχθροὺς ΈΜΟΙ
Δίκην τοσαύτην, ὥσθ' μοι καλῶς ἔχειν.

And in the *Medea* 547. which Eustathius quotes:

Εἰη δ' ΕΜΟΙΓΕ μήτε χρυσὸς ἐν δόμοις,

* * * * *

Εἰ μὴ 'πίσημος ἡ τύχη γένοιτ' ΜΟΙ.

Why ἀξιοῦσθαι should demand a substantive after it, we do not exactly comprehend. This verb is used without the Genitive expressed, in the Active voice: EURIP.

Heracl. 920. Ὦ Ὑμέναιε, δισσοὺς
Παῖδας Διὸς ἠξίωσας.

Soph. Aj. 1114. ——Οὐ γὰρ ἠξίου τοὺς μηδένας.

In the passive: *Orest.* 1165. *Ed. Porsoni*

——Ὃς Ἑλλάδος Ἦρξ' ἀξιωθείς.

and 1208. Καλοῖσιν ὑμεναίοισιν ἀξιουμένη.

336. Mr. P. reads πεφυκέναι, with Aldus, several MSS. and Eumathius, p. 301.; and in 337. τολμᾷν for τολμᾷ. Mr. W. prefers πέφυκ' ἀεὶ, the common reading, and scornfully rejects τολμᾷν.

To us, Mr. Porson's lections appear right: but the following passage of the *Diatribe* is extraordinary: '*Suspecta nobis semper lectio est, quæ suffulciri se flagitet arbitraria prorsus contra librorum auctoritatem conjectura.*' Are not *all* conjectures *contra librorum auctoritatem?* On what do Mr. Wakefield's newly-proposed readings, and the corrections promulgated in his notes on the Tragedies, and in his *Silva Critica*, depend?

439. Mr. W. proposes to change προσειπεῖν ὄνομα into προσειπεῖν ὄμμα—"*O light, for it is allowed me to accost your eye—;*" and not, "*your name.*"—At the end of the note, however, Mr. W. discovers that Frideric Jacobs had before formed this most incontrovertible conjecture.

On this emendation, we shall give Mr. Porson's remarks, from his note on the *Orestes*, 1080. After having stated that, though it is sometimes difficult to determine, *dissentientibus MSS.* whether ὄμμα or ὄνομα should be admitted, yet, *consentientibus MSS. nihil mutandum*; he thus proceeds:

'*Quocirca Friderici Jacobi conjecturam in Hec.* 439. προσωπεῖν γὰρ σῶμ' ἔν' ἐστι μοι, *ut inutilem, præternisi, sed eam, occasione oblata, nunc paucis examinabo. Ac primum illud quærere subit, quid mendosum est in vulgari lectione? An vitiosum est* προσωπεῖν ὄνομα? *Quare? Quia nusquam alibi occurrit. Occurratne alibi, an non, nescio; sed cur non protulisti loca, ubi* προσωπεῖν ὄμμα *occurrat? Jam si nusquam ea verba conjuncta reperiantur, cujusmodi dialectices est, semel dictum ejicere, ut nunquam dictum substituas? Quanquam, ut verum fatear,* προσαιδᾶν ὄμμα *existare videtur apud Æschyl. Choëph.* 236. *Ibi tamen Valckenerius legit* ὄνομα, *de* ὄμματος *in loco Phœnissarum* 415, *quæ est viri docti conjectura, non clare loquitur. Mihi quidem omnino in his locis recepta lectio servanda videtur. Jacobus est vir neque ingenii neque doctrinæ expers; quo tamen utroque sæpe abutitur ad sanas lectiones sollicitandas. Ne longe abeam; in hac fabula* 1017 *pro* πυρᾶς *conjecit* πύλης. *Legerat scilicet nescio quid de* πετρίνοις πύλαις *et* Ἅιδου πύλαις. *Verum priusquam de hoc invento sibi plauderet, demonstrare debebat* πετρίνων πυρᾶς *vitiosum esse; demonstrare debebat,* πύλη *singulari numero Euripidi esse usitatum. Cum librariorum inscitia atque audacia tot ubique solœcismos atque barbarismos, de quibus nemo dubitare possit, invenerit,* Bella geri placuit nullos habitura triumphos?"

490. The Chorus describes Hecuba as *having her back* on the ground, νῶτ' ἔχουσ' ἐπὶ χθονι—κεῖται. Mr. W. is offended at this grossness *, and proposes, χρῶτ' ἔχουσα, *having her skin.* He explains χρῶτα, indeed, by *corpus*, in this passage; as Hecuba, 505. asks: τίς ὄντος ΣΩΜΑ τοὐμὸν οὐκ ἐᾷ κεῖσθαι;—and also, (but improperly, in our opinion,) in Homer Il. N. 279. and P. 733.

This alteration appears to us wholly unnecessary, as the meaning of the passage figuratively will be the same, whether the word be χρῶτα or νῶτα, instead of σωμα.—So Electr. 481.

κελαινὰ δ' ἀμφὶ νῶθ' ἵετο κόνις.

This correction is of the same nature with that of ἐνεγκεῖν ῥιμφάλα πακὰ, instead of πτιμφάλα, and some others, proposed in the *Diatribe*.

Mr. W. reads αἰνῆ, at the beginning of this verse, where Mr. P. and the Editions give ἄνη; which we deem right. It is the feminine of ἄνης.

444. ——ἀπωλόμην φίλαι·
Ὡς τὴν Λάκαιναν ξύγγονον Διοσκόρων,
Ἑλένην ἴδοιμι.——

The Editors of Euripides place a full stop after φίλαι. In a note on this line, which follows instead of precedes that on v. 490. Mr. W. proposes a slighter stop after φίλαι· which is more proper than the *plena distinctio* of the Editions.

* Τὰ γὰρ εἰς τοῦτον πίπτοντα τοῖς παλαιοῖς, αἰσχυνῆ ἐστιν, says the Scholiast on the *Suppl.* of Æschylus, 95. How widely different is the case in Hecuba!

It

It may be mentioned, on this passage, that in execrations, among the antients, it is not unusual for the *sufferer* to pray that the *inflicter* may be exposed to the very same calamities which he has occasioned. Philoctetus thus exclaims, describing his situation when the Grecians Chiefs left him asleep:

Soph. Phil. ——— ὅια φωλὶ δυσμόρῳ
Ῥάκη προθέντες ἔαια, καὶ τι καὶ βορᾶς
Ἐπωφέλημα σμικρὸν· ΟΙ' ΑΤΤΟΙΣ ΤΥΧΟΙ.

This passage brings to our recollection an excellent emendation of a learned friend—whom on the present occasion we shall forbear to name.—*Parco viventis nomini.* It is on the concluding part of Philoctetus's speech: V. 314.

Τοιαῦτ' Ἀτρεῖδαί μ' ἤ τ' Ὀδυσσέως βία,
Ὦ παῖ, δεδράκασ'· Οἱ' Ὀλύμπιοι θεοὶ
Δοῖέν ποθ' αὐτοῖς ἀντίποιν' ἐμοῦ παθεῖν.

The old reading is ὅις Ὀλύμπιοι θεοί.—To the reader of taste and erudition this correction requires no display of words to prove its certainty. It is simple and happy. "*In hac etiam arte nihil difficilius, quam id, quod se dicturos fuisse omnes putant, postquam audierunt.*" VALCKEN. *in E. Phœn.* V. 1637. p. 552.

492. An intricate, if not a corrupt, passage; which none of the commentators, in our opinion, have either corrected or explained in a satisfactory manner. It must be noted that αὐλοὺς, which Musgrave, in his first note, proposes as a substitute for ἄλλως, and which stands in the text of Brunck, was originally the emendation of Reiske. The alteration we do not think right, but thus it is: ὃς οὐκ ἴχει, καὶ ὃ ἴχει ἀρθήσεται ἀπ' αὐλοῦ. S. MATT. XXV. 29.

500. ——κόνει φύρουσα δύσλυτον κάρα.

R. P. is silent. G. W. 'Et caput *tantum pulvere fedabat scilicet, dum solum volutabunda premeret*? Lego κονει φ. δ. ΧΡΟΑ. *Ille paullo diversus est lugendi modus: videas Suppl.* 826. Hom. Il. Σ. 23. 26. *alii passim.*'

This alteration also appears to us unnecessary. From the situation of Hecuba, she might more properly be described *as defiling her unfortunate* HEAD *with dust*, than either her *unfortunate* SKIN, or her *unfortunate* BODY, in whichever signification Mr. W. understands ΧΡΟΑ. The latter part of the observation has no relation to this passage, as "the mob-led Queen" is not represented as performing any ceremonial of sorrow: her HEAD was naturally exposed to this pollution, from her position. The κάρα in 490. and the κάρα in this verse, illustrate and support each other. Talthybius, therefore, concludes his speech with desiring her to raise πλευράν, καὶ τὸ παλλευκον κάρα.

508. Talthybius says to Hecuba: ἥκω,

Ἀγαμέμνονος πέμψαντος, ὦ γύναι, μέτα.

R. P. is silent. G. W. complains loudly of a solecism left untouched by the Editors, and proposes, with six references to different passages in Euripides:

Ἀγαμεμνονος πεμψαντος Σ, ὦ γυναι, μέτα. 'Qui me *ad te querendam* misit.'

This correction gives an IAMBIC verse with a firm and steady SPONDEUS, in the FOURTH place. We find it, however, altered thus with a pen, doubtless by the author's direction, in our copy of the *Diatribe*;

'Σ'—— πεμψαντος, ω γυναι, μέλα:'

but Σ' for Σε does not appear, as far as we recollect, at the beginning of an iambic verse; nor will such a position be justified by the production of examples from the Chorus. A *trimeter Catalectic Iambic*, indeed, begins with Σ' ἄναξ, in the *Phœn.* 301. *Valck.* 305. *Musgrav.* which, though on a different account, Valckenaer removes.

Σ' for ΣΕ, *elisa vocali*, 'it may be added, is not placed by the Attic Poets at the end of an iambic, when the following line begins with a vowel; though Δ' for ΔΕ is so allowed. SOPHOCLES.

O. T. 29. —— —— μέλας Δ'
ΑΙΔΗΣ σίεναλμῶις καὶ γόοις πλουτίζεται.
1224. —— —— ὅσον Δ'
Ἀρεῖσθε πένθος—
O. C. 17. —— —— πυκνόπλεροι Δ'
ΕΣΩ καλ' αὐλὸν ἐυσόμοῦσ' ἀηδόνες.

T' for TE also is similarly situated. EURIPIDES:

Iph. T.—— —— ἐις δίκην T'
'ΕΣΤΗΝ——

The instances in the Choral Odes, and in the Anapestic Systems, are more numerous: but they have no relation to the point under consideration. ΣΕ without an elision is to be found at the end of iambics, as in *Med.* 611. *Hipp.* 1327. *Helen.* 1221. *Androm.* 460. 557. 722. It also stands the first word of the verse in a variety of instances: but in no one of them is the line terminated with the preposition by which this inceptive ΣΕ is governed.

Πέμψαντος—μέτα is the same as μεταπέμψαντος.

520. Mr. W. places a *comma* before and after Ἀχαιῶν ἐκκρίτοις, which renders the passage clearer.

565. καθεῖσα πρὸς χέρα γόνυ.

R. P. 'MSS. *quidam*, κατθεῖσα. *Non male.*' ——

G. W.

G. W.——"*Non male.*" *Imo, nisi valde fallor, pessimè. Nam* καθεῖσα γόνυ. solutum *esse genu, et* deartuatum *corpore, innueret, in hoc loco: non* submisisset *igitur* genu *Polyxena, ad V. D. mentem, sed* exuisset *plane, quasi* ligneum, *et affabre politum, si Dis placet,*

Τέκτονος ἐν παλάμῃσι δαηφρονος· ἐς ἓα τε πασης
Ἐυ εἰδυῖης, ὑποθημοσυνῃσιν Ἀθηνης.'

For the rest of this whimsical note, we must refer to the *Diatribe*.

Why *putting down her knee*, καθεῖσα, may not be said, as well as *letting down* καθεῖσα, we shall not attempt to determine. In the Troades, 1315. and 1317. we find:

Γέραιά τ' εἰς πέδον ΤΙΘΕΙΣΑ μέλεα,
and—Διάδοχον σοι γόνυ τίθημι Γαίᾳ.

In Latin, DEPONO is used in the same manner in which Mr. Porson appears to suppose Καλαὶ θημι might have been admitted by Euripides. A few examples may be sufficient. Horace, I. 36. 18. *Deponent* oculos. Cicero, Philipp. XIII. 11. Ed. Gr. Vol. VII. p. 883. *in gremiis mimarum mentum mentemque* deponeres. Ovid. Amor. III. 5. 20. *Cornigerum, terræ* deposuisse *caput.*

It must also be observed that this verb, *Deponere*, is likewise used in the sense to which the author of the *Diatribe* is desirous of confining καλαὶ θηναι. In Lucretius, I. 259.——

Pecudes, pingues per pabula læta
Corpora DEPONUNT——

Where the great Bentley says: "*scilicet cum parturiunt,*" and Mr. Wakefield adds, in his truly beautiful edition of this Poet: "*Huic interpretationi totus accesserim;*" and then quotes Virgil *Æn.* VII. 108. and Catullus, XXXII. 8. for which we commend his taste and his learning.

In Euripides, however, the true reading is assuredly καθεῖσα. Let him defend himself: Iphig. in Taur. 333.

——Εἰς δὲ χθὼν γόνυ Καμάτῳ καθεῖσαν.——
584. ——Τοιάδ' ἀμφὶ σῆς λέγω Παιδὸς θανάσιμα.

R. P. Λέγω is the conjecture of Heath, which is near the reading of the Harleian MS. λέγων, and in V. 957 for τογχάνω the Reg. Soc. MS. gives τύχαιον. Morell, not King, (as Mr. P. corrects his note in his preface,) silently publishes

τοῖος ἀμφὶ σῆς λέγος.

"*Sed si imperfectum omnino retineri oportebat, non erat, quod triumpharant augmenti hostes, cum legi posset,* τοιάδ' ἔλεγον ἀμφὶ σῆς."

G. W. states the *Variæ Lectiones*, and observing that 'λέγω, *frigore letali ferit locum,*' proposes ΔΕΧΟΥ for λέγω, and defends it by long citations.

We are not satisfied with Λίγω. Λεγον for Ἔλεγον is indisputably wrong; and Δίχου is too violent a change, and does not suit the general tenor of the passage.—The new arrangement, τοιαδ' ἴλεγον ἀμφὶ σῆς, in our opinion, might more safely have been admitted into the text, than Λίγω. We deem no mode of correction so secure as that which alters only the position of the words, and not the letters.

We cannot but add that Thomas Morell, who '*audacter sed facile edidit* τοῖος ἀμφὶ σῆς λόγος [Præfat. R. Porsoni, p. xvi.] in his repetition of King's edition, instead of King's ἀμφὶ σῆς λίγον, afterward seems to have altered his opinion; as we have seen, written by himself, in a copy of the Hecuba which once belonged to him, the variation which Mr. Porson mentions:—τοιαδ' ἴλεγον ἀμφὶ σης.—This, we repeat, appears to us the genuine reading.

592. ———Παραναλῶ δ' ἰκάθεν ἄν
Λύπη τις ἄλλη, διάδοχος κακῶν κακοῖς.

R. P. is silent.

G. W. '*Criticus, quicunque facilem hujusce syntaxeos explicationem emodatam prestiterit,———erit mihi magnus Apollo. Tres reconduntur mihi in pharetra sagittæ, quarum qualibet dextro jactu scopum ferial.—Prior hæc est:*—ΔΙΑΔΟΧΟΙΣ *κακῶν κακοῖς.—Possis etiam per———ellipsin:*—ΔΙΑΔΟΧΑΣ *κ. τ. λ. Nec minus———διαδοχαις ἐτέραι satis constructioni faceret.*—Conf. Androm. 745. 804.'

Of these three emendations, the first, which Mr. W. judges '*vero propiorem*,' is not original; for thus says Musgrave's note:

"588. Διάδοχος. *Fortè* Διαδόχοις."

The second, Διαδοχαις, like Heath's Διάδοχον, is strained; and the third, Διαδοχαις, is more exceptionable than the first, as it less resembles the original word on which the correction is evidently founded. No one of the three seems, in our opinion, to be necessary. The construction is the same as in the *Suppl.* 72.

Ἀγὼν ὅδ' ἄνδρας ἴσχεται, γόων γόοις [νεὶ γόῳ]
Διάδοχος.———

So Sophocles says, *Aj.* 866.

Πόνος πόνῳ πόνον φέρει.

We have placed a *comma* after ἴσχεται, instead of after γόων, and would admit either Valckenaer's correction, γόοις, or read γόῳ in the place of the second γόων. In Aldus, the passage stands thus:

Ἀγὼν ὅδ' ἄλλος ἴσχεται γόων γόων διάδοχος.———

Valckenaer in *Phœn.* p. 134. reads: Α. ἀ. ἀ. ἴσχεται γόων, γόοις Διάδοχος, "*quia sic struere solet. illam dictionem Euripides.*"

Διάδοχος takes sometimes a Genitive case after it, sometimes a Dative, and sometimes a Genitive and a Dative. Examples may be produced from the tragedies.

ÆSCHYLUS, *Prom.* 1026. Edit. Porsoni.

Πρὶν ἂν θεῶν τις διάδοχος τῶν σῶν πόνων
Φανῇ.——

SOPHOCLES. *Phil.* 867. Ὦ φίγλος ὕπνου διάδοχον.

EURIPIDES. *Androm.* 744.

Ἔργοισι δ' ἐρῶ διάδοχ' ἀνιλιπὴ βίᾳ.

and 803 —— ὡς καλὸν καλῷ
Διάδοχον ἐν τῇδ' ἡμέρᾳ πορσανεῖται.

Aldus reads καλὸν καλῶς. Valckenaer rightly, *loc. citato*, restores καλῷ from the Florentine edition in capital letters, where it stands ΚΑΚΩΙ.

Eurip. Alcest. 666.

Πᾶς δ' ἦν ἐγώ σοι τῶν δε διάδοχος δόμων.

Æschyl. Prom. 477 —— Σώμασίν θ' ὅπως
Θηβαίοις μεγίστων διάδοχοι μοχθημάτων
Γενοιθ',

In this passage of the *Hecuba*, 592, and in that of the *Supplices* 73. if our proposed punctuation be right *, there are both a Genitive and a Dative after Διάδοχος. A Genitive is also found in Xenophon, Hellen. I. 1. p. 432. B. Ed. Paris. 1625. Ἦσαν οἱ διάδοχοι τῶν Εὐρυποντίων ἐς Μίλητον.

Διαδόχη is followed by a Genitive: E. *Hecub.* 1159.

—— Διαδοχαῖς ἀμείβουσαι χεροῖν.

Iph. Taur. 79. —— διαδοχὰς δ' Ἑρινύων Ἡλαινόμεσθα.——

It is also used without a substantive: E. *Phœn.* 1667. *Suppl.* 408. *Æschyl. Agam.* 321: as Διαδόχος is in E. *Troad.* 1317. Διάδοχα is found adverbially E. *Androm.* 1204. The word does not occur in the Comedies of Aristophanes.

After having duly considered these passages, it appears to us that Mr. Porson would not have been justifiable, if he had admitted Musgrave's alteration, or that of any other critic, into the text of his Hecuba, 592.

[*To be continued.*]

* In due time, Mr. Porson's opinion of this passage will, we trust, appear. Markland reads: ἰὼ χθόνιαι γόων, γόων διάδοχοι, as Musgrave points it, but in his notes conjectures: Αἰ αἰ ἀ. ἰὼ χθόνιαι γόων γόων διάδοχοι κλύετε πρευμένων [*ex Heathio*] χάρις.

ART. XVI. *An Enquiry into the State of the Public Mind amongst the Lower Classes, and on the Means of turning it to the Welfare of the State.* In a Letter to William Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Richardson. 1798.

THE author of this Inquiry gives a very favourable and, in many respects, a very just account of the condition of the poor in this country, contrasted with that of those who reside in neighbouring nations; and he then represents the danger, to which they are exposed, of being seduced into republicanism with regard to politics, and into infidelity on the subject of religion. In our opinion, he feels or feigns alarm in a much greater degree than the actual state of the public mind, especially among the lower classes of the community, will justify. It is not uncommon for men who are really terrified, or who wish to produce terror in others, to exaggerate an existing evil; and this we conceive to be the case in the present instance. Ignorance and profligacy, and a disposition to indulge discontent and complaint, have been always more common in the inferior orders of society, than a friend to his country and to the true interest of mankind would wish: but we do not apprehend that, at the present period, they are more prevalent and notorious than they have been on former occasions. At all times, it is the duty of those who possess the requisite talents, and whose stations give them an opportunity and lay them under a peculiar obligation, to enlighten the ignorant, to restrain the licentious, and to tranquillize the discontented and querulous. Mr. Young's mode of stating the evil is not, we apprehend, the most eligible and the most effectual method of redressing it: for exaggeration and crimination are not the best means of guarding against the influence of either political or moral depravity. Infinite pains, he says, have been taken, on the one hand, to corrupt the people; and, very much to our surprise he adds, on the other,

'What a blank is presented to us, when we demand what has been done by the legislature, to oppose that torrent of atheism, deism, irreligion, and contempt of all duties, human and divine, which has pervaded the nation like a pestilence. Blasphemy, sedition, treason, distributed for a penny; their antidotes for a shilling, or half-a-crown.'

In another place, after having intimated the good or bad use that may be made of existing liberty 'in diffusing the Bible, and Mr. Wilberforce's Practical View,' or 'disseminating *Tom Paine*,' &c. he says that, 'horrible as French principles are, they might be counteracted, were government as anxious in preserving, as Jacobins are sedulous in poisoning, the minds of the people.'

In

In order to guard the poor and laborious against imbibing discontent, he directs them to view the state of Switzerland; and also that of Ireland, 'where they may see a peasantry frantic with discontent, yet without the power of stating a single grievance; involving their country in anarchy, and cutting throats, they know not for what; favours accumulated upon them, yet producing no other effect than darkening the shades of discontent, and sharpening the daggers ready to be plunged into the hearts of their benefactors.'

He farther leads them to consider

'The almost incalculable and, to them, incredible sums which they receive in the payment of their labour, and in the receipt of legal and voluntary charity. I have calculated, and with some attention, the amount of what is paid for *labour* of all sorts in England; and it is not, probably, less than one hundred millions sterling; poors rates, and charities of every sort, cannot amount to less than seven millions. Add to this, the income (to the lower classes) derived from the amount of our taxes, so large a part of which, by far the greatest part, is swallowed up by those classes, and it will be a very moderate calculation to estimate, that a revolution in this country, through French assistance, would annihilate a greater mass of income than is enjoyed by all France, in this moment of her triumphs abroad and misery at home.'

From such calculations, Mr. Young infers that 'of all the classes of a state, none would suffer more by a revolution than the labouring poor, except it be the great landlords and the clergy. These are facts susceptible of demonstration: what, then, is the care that has been exerted by government to have them clearly impressed on the minds of the people?'

Having explained the political cause of the discontents, which he conceives to exist among the lower classes, the author directs the views of the reader to that defect of religious instruction, of which the poor, if they were duly sensible of its value, would be disposed to complain. As our churches are now arranged, he says, there can be no such thing as religious instruction and public worship among the lower classes in this metropolis. Our churches, according to his account, seem to be 'built only for the rich: for the whole space which they include is occupied by pews, to which the poor have no admittance. The aisles are narrow, and in some churches 'there are few or no benches to sit on, and no mats to kneel on.'

Having stated the evil in his usual manner, he proceeds to specify the remedy, with respect particularly to London:

'Build new churches in those parts of the town, where the poor are most numerous. Let them be in the form of a theatre; the whole area occupied by benches for the poor, with thick mats to kneel upon; and for the higher classes, ranges of galleries, or boxes, contrived

trived for hearing distinctly. Do more than build: provide preachers, who shall inculcate the vital Christianity of the Church of England; for that alone can administer true comfort to the miserable, the distressed, the poor.—The service might be performed four times every Sunday; and if the churches were as well contrived for receiving sinners to be rendered penitent, as theatres are for collecting them for other purposes, thousands might, and would resort to them.'—

'Let this expence be incurred, notwithstanding the charges of assessments, taxes and subscription.'—'Shall we go in crowds to subscribe for building a ship, or paying a regiment; and shall we not be as desirous of contributing to *another security*, the great basis of every other. The mere hull of a single 74 would build two churches; which, in the course of a year, must carry the gospel doctrine of content, and of submission to legal authority, to the hearts of many thousands at present debased, profligate, and ready for every mischief.'—'Genuine Christianity is inconsistent with revolt, or with discontent in the midst of plenty. The true Christian will never be a leveller; will never listen to French politics, or to French philosophy. He who worships God in spirit and in truth, will love the government and the laws which protect him, without asking by whom they are administered.'

Other evils, for which Mr. Young wishes that a remedy were provided, are—the non-residence of the clergy, and their exceptionable conduct. Let those whom it concerns peruse what he says on this subject. To his remarks on the state of religious instruction and ecclesiastical discipline, he subjoins similar reflections on the system of our moral police; and he cautions against granting so many licences to public houses, which, he adds, 'is building revenue on the ruin of morals. It is to establish public security on disaffection to government—it is to hold out a jacobin paper as a rival to the parson's sermon—it is to consider industry as useless, and sobriety as a national loss. The finances that are levied on such principles will not flourish long, nor do they deserve prosperity.'

The pernicious effect of wealth and luxury on the lower classes of the community is another subject on which the author enlarges; and to this he attributes much of that habitual neglect of religion, and that spirit of infidelity, which are gaining ground, and which are promoted by the diffusion and taint of French principles. Many of his reflections, in this part of his address, are very just, and deserve attention.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1799.

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 17. *A Treatise on Spherical Geometry*, containing its fundamental Properties; the Doctrine of its Loci; the Maxima and Minima of Spherical Lines and Areas: with an Application of these Elements to a Variety of Problems. By John Howard. 8vo. pp. 170. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

THE object of this treatise is to advance the doctrine of the sphere, which has made but small progress since the time of the antient Geometricians.—The distribution of the work is as follows:

'Book I. contains the fundamental principles of spherical angles and triangles, including not only those composed of great circles of the sphere; but, in general, such as are composed of circles of less radii. A subject that I do not know has before been attempted.

'Book II. contains the fundamental principles of spherical quadrangles, with some added properties of spherical quadrangles, and determines the measurement of solid angles.

'Book III. contains a great many curious properties of straight lines, and circles drawn from given points within and without the surface of the sphere, and terminating in the circumference of given spherical circles; also, some curious LOCI of spherical angles and triangles, and of lines drawn to spherical and cylindrical surfaces, analogous to some of the plane LOCI of Apollonius. And here the reader will find many beautiful analogies between the properties of lines drawn to meet in the surface of the sphere, and of those drawn to meet in the circle *in plano*.

'Book IV. includes the doctrine of spherical *maxima* and *minima*; and here, I believe, will be found a variety of new and useful properties relative to triangles, polygons, &c. not confined to figures composed of great circles of the sphere; but, in general, extending to such as are composed of circles of less radii, including the remarkable problem which determines the curve, that under a given perimeter, includes the greatest spherical surface, as also an extensive theorem of solid *maxima* and *minima*.

'Book V. (or I. of the application) contains the construction of spherical problems deduced from the foregoing principles; many of which will, I trust, be found useful in astronomical researches; and here is included, a series of curious problems, analogous to those which VIETA has constructed *in plano*, and that FERMAT has extended to planes and spheres; beginning with determining a circle on the sphere that shall pass through two given points, and touch a circle given in magnitude and position, and ending with finding a circle on the sphere that shall touch three other circles given in magnitude and position.

'Book VI. (or II. of the application) contains a variety of problems relating to triangles.'

This publication deserves the notice of Philomaths.

HISTORY,

HISTORY, ANTIQUITIES, &c.

Art. 18. *Specimens and Parts; containing a History of the County of Kent*, and a Dissertation on the Laws, from the Reign of Edward the Confessor to Edward the First; of a Topographical, Commercial, Civil, and Nautical *History of South Britain*, with its gradual and comparative Progress in Trade, Arts, Population, and Shipping, from authentic Documents. By Samuel Henshall, Clerk, M. A. Fellow of Brazen-Nose College, Oxford. 4to. pp. 175. 10s. 6d. Boards. Faulder. 1798.

This ample title-page is followed by a prospectus, from which we learn that it is Mr. H.'s intention to continue a similar investigation in every county, up to the present reign; and that his whole design will be completed in ten *fasciculi*, of the same size and plan as that before us.

The undertaking is arduous, in proportion to the difficulty of its execution, the extent of the subjects, and their importance in forming a genuine history of the early reigns. This specimen gives a map of Kent, from Domesday-book, and a new arrangement of its contents in summary tables, which are digested with diligence and perspicuity.

In describing the early feudal tenures, and ascertaining the rank and privileges of the tenants, an uncommon acquaintance with the Norman law, and its influence in England during the first centuries after the conquest, is displayed in almost every page. We refer our readers to the specimen itself, which would suffer by an analysis, cordially wishing that the attempt may meet with its merited encouragement and success.

Art. 19. *Miscellaneous Antiquities (in Continuation of the Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica)*. No. 6. containing *the History and Antiquities of Twickenham*, being the First Part of Parochial Collections for the County of Middlesex, begun in 1780. By Edward Ironside, Esq. 4to. pp. 156. 10s. 6d. sewed. Nichols. 1797.

On this specimen of the parochial survey of the county of Middlesex, and as the sixth No. of the continuation of Mr. Nichols's *additional* antiquities, we would beg to hazard one or two observations.

Are extracts of the mere names of obscure individuals from the register, and epitaphs given *verbatim*, of sufficient importance to any class of readers, to occupy *fifty-one* pages out of 156, largely and loosely printed?

Are a comparative statement of the price of provisions from 1730 to 1780, and a list of principal inhabitants in 1789 relating to a populous village near the capital, worthy of forming a part of a general county history?

Our opinion is in the negative;—and we hoped to have found some little relief in the description of a place which is rendered classical by the long residence of Pope and Walpole, and highly embellished by the resort of the opulent and the polished: but we have discovered no valuable supplement to the judicious account given by Mr. Lysons in his Environs of London (vol. iii. p. 538), which Mr. Ironside has very freely adopted, as far as the facts. The memoirs of the learned Vicar,

George Costard, are the most interesting: but his portrait, and the other plates, are positively below criticism; especially at a time like the present, when able artists abound, whose employment is very limited.

Art. 20. *The History and Antiquities of Tewkesbury.* By W. Dyde, 2d Edition, with considerable Additions and Corrections. 8vo. pp. 213. 6s. Boards. Printed at Tewkesbury, by the Editor. London, Wilkie. 1798.

The first edition of this work has been already noticed with approbation in our annals *. It now appears in an enlarged and improved form, and may be considered as a pretty performance, at once instructive and entertaining. It is accompanied with a View of the Town, and some other additional engravings, very well executed.

IRELAND.

Art. 21. *Necessity of an Incorporate Union between Great Britain and Ireland, proved from the Situation of both Kingdoms.* With a Sketch of the Principles on which it ought to be formed. 8vo. pp. 132. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1799.

Not one of the many tracts which we have seen, in favour of the proposed Union between Great Britain and Ireland, has taken a more comprehensive view of the subject than that which is now before us. The author supposes that the first idea, that an union was to take place between Great Britain and Ireland, originated with the public; whence he infers 'a general conviction, that some arrangement must be formed between the countries, to ensure their joint prosperity and mutual good understanding.' The manner in which the idea originated does not affect its merits: but our belief is, that it first came to the public in the shape of a rumour that such a plan was in the contemplation of ministry, independently of any public or general consideration respecting its necessity.

The points which the author attempts to establish are, first, 'that the present system is insufficient to promote the prosperity and ensure the tranquillity of the empire;' and 2dly, 'that an incorporating union, forming the two nations into one kingdom, subject to the same laws, and governed by the same legislature, is the only means to accomplish these salutary effects.' After a short but clear statement of the situation of Ireland previously to 1782, he observes that,

'By the final recognition of her legislative independence, Ireland then took a new station, in respect to this country, from that in which she had previously stood. Two consequences necessarily followed, from her Parliament having gained the exclusive right to regulate her national interests; both materially affecting her connection with Great Britain. First, it left no common bond of union between the kingdoms, except what arose from their acknowledgment of a common sovereign. Secondly, it reduced their commercial intercourse to a mere matter of convention. It left each at liberty, unless where bound by positive compact, to consider the other as a foreign nation; to disregard its maritime regulations; to exclude its

* See Rev. for May 1791, N. S. p. 111.

commodities

commodities from the home market, or even to give a decided preference to those of a rival staple.'

Sister kingdoms, being portions of the same empire, he insists, 'must admit of some common supremacy to regulate their mutual intercourse, and to improve and apply their physical strength to their joint advantage.' If the present system supplies such an authority, he adds, 'it must be, that a principle of empire sufficient to regulate the conduct of these islands to their mutual advantage is created by the unity of the executive government, or that it exists somewhere else.' After having shewn that the prerogatives of the crown do not furnish power adequate to this purpose, he demands, 'where else, then, can this imperial principle be said to exist? Surely not in two legislatures, by their constitution wholly distinct and independent; possessing neither means nor forms, nor even a painted chamber to communicate or hold a conference with each other.'

It must be obvious that a principle, sufficiently powerful to direct the affairs of Ireland according to the views of the executive government of this country, has existed, notwithstanding the recent instance of the legislature of that kingdom rejecting the proposed plan of an union; which is only to be regarded as an exception to a rule, otherwise almost without exception. The writer allows that the Irish Parliament, notwithstanding the 'giddy wishes of the people, have wisely avoided all subjects of contest with this country, and prudently submitted to such regulations as her laws prescribe to the empire: but (adds he) a new malady, dangerous to the connection of the countries, has arisen out of this very practice, by which it has been hitherto preserved. Artful, innovating men, have ascribed this acquiescence to servile and shameless corruption. They have painted the Parliament of Ireland as more attentive to the nod of a British Minister, than to the interests or the will of that people by whom they are chosen.'

The author asserts, (we hope, erroneously,) that many well-affected Irishmen are of opinion that a separation of the two countries would produce no ill consequences to Ireland. Many of the probable evils, which Ireland would have to sustain in consequence of a separation, are pointed out, and by no means exaggerated:—indeed, we are of opinion that it is scarcely possible to exaggerate the description of the mischiefs which a separation would bring on both countries; and that it would be to each an event more fatal than any which has befallen either, since the Norman conquest. As a separate country, the author justly remarks, the very limited strength of Ireland 'must keep her in a state of relative insignificance, when compared with those empires which predominate in Europe.'—

'Diminutive states have neither means nor power to command the tranquillity, or ensure the prosperity of their people. They exist rather by the sufferance and jealousy of more powerful neighbours, than by their own inherent vigour.

'Many such have been created, and all those which have existed since the time of the Emperor Charles V. have been favoured and protected by the balance of power in Europe. Their destruction was the first consequence of its fall. Those rough republican storms, which

which shook little more than leafy and deciduous honours from the great monarchies of Europe, have torn the lesser states from their foundations, and laid them prostrate.'

Ireland may share greatness with others, but, by herself, she cannot hope even for that tranquillity which is essential to happiness.

The author has happily described the temper and abilities necessary for the examination of a question so important as a scheme of perpetual union:

'Those who consider an object which extends infinitely beyond our petty space of time upon the earth, should cautiously purge the mind of such little anxieties for aggrandisement as center in ourselves, and must terminate with us. We must disencumber and lighten the understanding of these selfish passions, which cannot flutter above the narrow spot on which they are used to grovel, if we would rise to that degree of elevation from whence, as from the true point of perspective, the mind's eye may wander over the entire plan; survey its proportions; examine its ends; compare its beauty with its use; and contrast its durability with both.'—'To frame or judge of the plans of a statesman, with the wisdom of a statesman, requires a statistical knowledge of the country upon which they are to operate; profound views of human nature; a laborious and patient comparison of all that the wise and the disinterested have accomplished, and all in which they have failed, to assuage the evils and augment the happiness of human life.'

Having remarked on the inconveniences of the different kinds of federal union, and on the advantages of an incorporate union, as the only one suited to the present occasion, the writer states the following objections, which are most likely to be urged:

'1. That it would destroy the very name of Ireland as a nation. 2. It would annihilate her Government and her independence. 3. It would greatly increase the preponderance of English influence: every place, worth having, would be conferred on Englishmen; the retainers of ministers, peers, or persons otherwise of great English interest. 4. The number of absentees would be greatly augmented. 5. Dublin, the capital and present seat of the legislature, would be reduced to the state of an inconsiderable village. 6. It would bring that country into partnership as to the debts, as well as the prosperity of England, and her taxes would be increased to an enormous extent.'

Of these, the 2d and last are perhaps the most important. The establishment of a new government necessarily annihilates the old: the only question worth consideration is, whether the new be preferable to that which it has superseded. Independence, likewise, cannot belong to any separate portion of a state; and this will apply to both countries. The share of political importance which Ireland would enjoy, if she were fairly represented in an united parliament, would probably be more than she at present possesses; and we are willing to believe, with the writer, that the 'objection built upon the supposition that a narrow principle of rivalship and jealousy must continue to exist between the two countries, although an union should take place,' is void of foundation; and that an united legislature

would be actuated by a more liberal spirit. Another ground on which Ireland may hesitate, notwithstanding that she has no pretensions to superiority in that respect, is the present state of our representation.

The latter pages are occupied with schemes of financial adjustment. The following is the outline of what the author proposes:

'The debt of that kingdom which is the least may be easily consolidated with a portion of that which is the greater; calculated in a proportionate ratio to the number of Representatives which each returns to the Legislature. But as the excess of debt will still remain considerable on the side of Great Britain, she has two ways of providing for it, without injury to Ireland. By the first, it may be imposed upon the two countries indifferently; this kingdom, paying an equivalent in money to Ireland, proportioned to the burthen which would thus fall upon her to sustain; the equivalent to be laid out exclusively for her advantage and improvement. By the second, she may take it entirely upon herself, and raise the means upon her own people to defray the interest, and discharge the principal.'

The late decision in Ireland, on the question of an Union, had not taken place when this publication first made its appearance. The author is an able advocate for the cause which he has undertaken: but some may think that he is not free from partiality to this country; and perhaps it may be said,—on the other side of the water, at least,—that he rates too highly the obligations which she has conferred on Ireland. His reasonings, however, are clear; and it must be acknowleged that many of his arguments, in favour of an Incorporate Union with Ireland, have great weight.

Art. 22. *Arguments for and againſt the Union between Great Britain and Ireland, considered.* 8vo. pp. 58. 1s. 6d. Printed at Dublin; reprinted in London, for Wright.

The title prefixed to this pamphlet led us to expect an impartial statement of both sides of the question; instead of which, the aim of the writer is wholly directed to prove the benefit of the proposed union. No arguments on the other side are advanced by him, except with the design of refutation;—and his ideas of political expedience he endeavours to maintain with too little respect for right. His leading position is the preservation of the protestant ascendancy; and loss of power is treated as loss of right.

That justice shall in any case be superseded by motives of expediency can be excusable on no other plea than that of self-defence. Ireland, ever since it has been subject to the crown of Great Britain, has, in fact, been united to this country. Whether, by incorporating the legislatures, the union will be stronger, will most probably depend on the principles on which such a measure shall be carried into effect: but it is, no doubt, in the power of this country, by acting with justice towards Ireland, to make such an union palatable to every honest man on both sides of the water.—With respect to the pamphlet before us, it may be said to contain more of information than of sound argument.

Art.

Art. 23. *Cease your Funning.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dublin printed; Debrett, London. 1799.

The proposed scheme of union between Great Britain and Ireland has naturally called forth the exercise of considerable abilities on both sides of the question. The writer of this pamphlet is a warm opposer of the measure. He attacks the author of *Arguments for and against an Union considered* in a strain of severe irony, which is continued throughout;—but his language is frequently too strong; and there is not a sufficient portion of that light and relief which are the soul of irony, and without which the author's real meaning sometimes appears ambiguous.

A measure involving so many complicated and contradictory interests as an union between two kingdoms, and which would certainly be productive of so many advantages and disadvantages, must afford an inexhaustible fund for disputation. The misfortune is, that there are so few who enter the lists for the purpose of fair investigation.

Art. 24. *Letters on the Subject of Union.* In which Mr. Jebb's 'Reply *' is considered; and the Competence of Parliament to bind Ireland to an Union is asserted. By a Barrister and Member of Parliament. 8vo. 2s. Printed at Dublin: Reprinted in London, for Wright. 1799.

Some of these letters are addressed to William Saurin, Esq. an eminent barrister in Dublin, and Captain of the Lawyers' Corps; and others to Richard Jebb, Esq. The concluding letter is addressed to the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Though the author writes in a lively and rather eccentric manner, he is a good arguer, and, with a semblance of simplicity, makes many shrewd remarks. His reasoning in favour of encouraging doubts, in the discussion of important questions, is entertaining and uncommon.

'Men are not zealous (still less are they violent) in supporting an opinion the truth of which they doubt. We do not venture to stamp and rant, where we are not sure that we are standing on firm ground. Now, as a violent support of either side of the present question does not seem calculated to promote the happiness or tranquillity of our country, that man is perhaps something more than justified, who would excite doubts, for the purpose of appeasing violence.'—

'He who chooses to weigh the arguments before he decides the question, is not a weaker man than him who decides without examination; yet the period of examination will be a period of doubt, and the duration of this period will bear some proportion to the complication of the question, and to the number of the arguments which it supplies. But this interval of uncertainty it has been my lot to find scorned by the promptitude and sublimity of many of those geniuses with whom I have conversed on the subject of Union.'

The writer combats the propriety of a premature and unqualified rejection of the abstract question of Union, as being excuseable

* Mr. Jebb's Reply is not yet before us.

only in those who are prepared to assert '*that no scheme of Union can be devised, which will not be injurious to Ireland.*'—'If (says he) I were asked whether an Union would be advantageous to Ireland, I should answer *c'est selon*:—that Union in the abstract is a thing *indifferent*, and becomes good or bad according to the kind of Union that it is, and to the circumstances under which it is obtained.' Instead of the question 'whether there be any thing that by an Union can be obtained from Great Britain, which she *might* not grant without an Union,' he observes, another question might be substituted, *i. e.* whether Great Britain *will* be, or, in sound policy, *ought* to be as liberal, in a connection under circumstances tending to promote a jealous and reserved policy, as in an Union?

In answer to the hackneyed objection against reform or alteration, that "this is not the proper time," the writer asks; if Ireland had been peaceably advancing in industry, and had 'now attained that prosperity, which I trust still awaits her, would this be the proper period for proposing an Union?—Could the Minister gravely tell the Parliament, or the People, *that their situation being manifestly prosperous and happy in a high degree, he thought they could not do better than immediately alter and correct that Constitution, under which their prosperity and happiness had grown.*'

In the two concluding letters, the question of the competency of parliament is argued, and opinions of great lawyers are quoted on the absolute and uncontrollable authority of parliaments. If we should venture an opinion on this subject, it would be that, *when a parliament or legislature is so constituted as to express the real sense and wishes of the people for whom it legislates, such a parliament will not claim absolute supremacy, unless it is willingly conceded to them by its constituents.*

Art. 25. *An Examination into the Discontents in Ireland;* with Remarks on the Writings and Interference, *ex officio*, of Arthur Young, Esq. Being a faithful Narrative of the Sufferings of the Roman Catholic Peasantry, from the Operation of Tithes, the Payment and Exactions of Surplice Fees, &c. Shewing, by a very easy Method, a Plan for the Tranquillization of that Kingdom. By William Bingley, *fourteen Years* a Resident in Ireland. 4to. 2s. 6d. Sold by the Editor, at No. 2, Red-Lion-Passage, Fleet-Street. 1799.

The public-spirited writer of this tract, who is well known on account of some former productions of a political nature, has incidentally been furnished with singular opportunities of judging, from a personal acquaintance with *facts*, of the real state of the country and country-people of Ireland, and of the actual nature and consequence of the grievances to which the late insurrections and fatal occurrences in the sister kingdom have been, or may be, ascribed. These he here points out, for the particular consideration of his English readers; and he has done this with every appearance of candour, temperance, and sagacity of observation. Indeed, these details have afforded us more satisfactory information on the subject, than we have found in all the swarm of speeches, pamphlets, and newspaper-essays, which have lately been circulated on this side of the

the water; and perhaps the same remark may apply to the greatest part of what has appeared on both sides.—We suggest this opinion in full conviction that the author is right in his conclusion, that our statesmen and politicians 'have begun at the wrong end,' in their measures for terminating the differences which have so unhappily divided and harassed the two nations. He dwells, especially, on the matter of tithes, &c. the weight of which, he is firmly persuaded, the Roman Catholic inhabitants, (the peasantry, particularly,) never will nor can patiently endure. Remove this stumbling block, this '*bone of contention*,' and the writer is decidedly of opinion that all the *contention* now subsisting, in regard to the government and peace of Ireland, will speedily subside, and BE NO MORE!

With respect to a due provision for the established clergy, he proposes a plan for their '*better maintenance*,' which seems liable to little, if any, reasonable objection; though possibly, considerable improvement may be added to it.

Mr. B. offers many other observations and arguments, on points of collateral import: the whole forming a miscellany not devoid of entertainment, and certainly abounding with useful information.

POLITICS, FINANCE, &c.

Art. 26. *An Address to the People, on the present relative Situations of England and France*, with Reflections on the Genius of Democracy, and on Parliamentary Reform. By Robert Fellowes, A. B. Oxon. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

A spirited and animated writer is generally himself hurried, and consequently endeavours to carry his readers to extremes. It is not so with Mr. F., who is energetic without being violent; and who preserves great moderation of sentiment in the midst of glowing expressions. He does not declaim against republican democracy because he is partial to absolute monarchy; nor, in combating the doctrine of universal suffrage, does he scout all ideas of parliamentary reform. So far from subscribing to the doctrine of divine right, he asserts that "there is no truth which appears more plain and indisputable to his mind than this, that all government is a power in trust; and that the only valid title-deed of its right is the will of the people.' Notwithstanding this, however, Mr. F. is a most strenuous advocate for kingly government, in opposition to the republican system; and he has supported his preference by the most weighty arguments. 'In monarchy, there is a certain limit, at which ambitious expectation ends; in democracy, there is no quiescence to the demon of aspiring pride till it reaches the pinnacle of tyranny.—In monarchy, there is a wish to be high; in democracy to be highest: in the one, individuals are emulous to the great, in the other, to the greatest.—In monarchy, the highest station of power is no object of envy; in democracy envy is busy even with the lowest.—The factions, that agitate a democracy, resemble the eruptions of a volcano, that spread devastation and ruin through the space which they occupy; in a monarchy they are more like the mists, that collect and fret away their harmless rage round the summit of the mountains.'

After this contrast, it is scarcely necessary to add that this Address exhibits no favourable picture of modern France. Mr. F. justly thinks, indeed, that we ought to be thankful that Directorial despotism is not suffered to stalk, with strides of ruin, through this island.

On one subject which Mr. F. has introduced in a note, we wish that he had written a pamphlet, viz. The influence of property on principle; shewing how far virtue depends on a certain share of physical happiness, and consequently how far the morality of the people may be amended by an improvement of their circumstances. Such a discussion will lead to a just view of the state of the poor, and will expose the folly of that system of laws which endeavours to improve their morals by (as it were) annihilating them as members of the community. It will perhaps be discovered that our poor-laws originate in a mistake. 'Philosophers (says Mr. F.) have never explained the true relations between physical want, and the want of moral principle;'—will he permit us, then, to request him to oblige the public with this important explanation? By the sketch which he has given, we think that we perceive his ability to finish the picture.

Art. 27. *Substance of Mr. Canning's Speech in the House of Commons*, Dec. 11, 1798, on Mr. Tierney's Motion respecting Continental Alliances. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

We believe that past experience must have sufficiently instructed our countrymen, what degree of dependence is to be placed on continental alliances; especially those of which the principal cement is British gold. Neither Mr. Canning's arguments, nor his acknowleged eloquence, have lessened our distrust.

Art. 28. *Tax upon Income*, as stated in Mr. Pitt's Speech, Dec. 3, 1798, *impartially considered.* By a Member of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Clement.

This pamphlet contains many strong arguments against the principle of taxing income; and particularly against taxing such income as arises from industry, in the same proportion as that which arises from capital.

Art. 29. *Tests of the National Wealth and Finances of Great Britain*, in Dec. 1798. 8vo. 1s. 6d. White.

This writer infers, from the increase of our taxes, the increase of the national wealth. His pamphlet likewise contains some remarks on the redemption of the land tax, and the copy of a letter from the author to Mr. Pitt on that subject; in which he proposes a plan to enable the proprietor of land, by borrowing, (if he cannot otherwise effect his purpose,) to purchase the redemption of his land-tax.

Art. 30. *State of the Country* in the Autumn of 1798. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

A glowing panegyric on Government; 'which,' says the writer, 'has been the instrument, in the hands of Heaven, to effect our deliverance, and to conduct us to safety and to glory. What must be the tree which has produced such fruit?' Speaking of the continental powers that have been confederated against France, he says, '*We* have

have done our part, and shall, I trust, continue to do it.—*Let them*, even now, do theirs, and THE WORLD IS SAVED.'

Art. 31. *A Measure productive of substantial Benefits*, to Government, the Country, the Public Funds, and to Bank Stock, Respectfully submitted to the Governors, Directors, and Proprietors of the Bank of England. By Simeon Pope. 8vo. pp. 46. 1s. 6d. Richardson. 1799.

The measure proposed by Mr. Pope is as follows:

'Let the Bank of England (under the sanction of Parliament) advance to Government, this year, the sum of ten millions, at an interest of four per cent. and payable in ten instalments, on the security or credit of the general income tax for the ensuing year 1800—then to be optional in the Bank proprietors to extend or not the loan to the year 1801—and so to every succeeding year as long as the tax shall exist.'

The most important objection to this plan is the increase of bank paper in circulation which it might cause. Mr. P. supposes that, the sum being advanced by instalments, the notes issued for the first will, in the common course of business, have returned to the bank before the second instalment becomes payable:—but if not, he affirms that, in our present circumstances, an 'emission of more than double the notes at this time in circulation is justifiable.' If the Bank be restrained from paying in specie, and under no restraint as to the quantity of paper which it may circulate, it may well afford to lend to government any number of millions: but a disproportionate use of such a licence endangers not only public credit, but all property in the kingdom. We believe the legislature to be the only judge competent to determine the quantity of bank notes which should be allowed to circulate.

Mr. P. advances several positions to which we cannot accede. He is of opinion, for instance, that taxes which distress the farmer are beneficial, and occasion overflowing markets and low prices:—but, if the farmer carries more to the market than the average produce, he must lessen his stock, and future years will suffer for a present plenty.—The style of this pamphlet is too florid for such sober subjects as money and artithmetical calculations.

Art. 32. *The Speech of Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M. P.* &c. on the Bill for imposing a Tax upon Income, in the Debate on that Bill, on Friday the 14th December 1798. 8vo. 6d. Debrett. 1799.

Sir John Sinclair regards the funding system as 'the climax of financial invention, the greatest of all political discoveries, the most valuable mine,' &c. If there be merit in anticipating revenue and in incurring debt, the moderns are not entitled to the honour of the invention; for it is a discovery of very antient date. Funding depends on the ability of the borrower, and on the credit which the opinion of that ability creates. When Governments anticipate, if there be a want of ability in the country, or a deficiency of credit, they become bankrupt. Nothing strengthens so much as the practice of funding, in appearance, the mischievous political paradox that private vices are public benefits. In Sir John's speech, it is apprehended, as a misfortune, that a spirit of economy may be introduced

into the establishments of private families. Yet it must invariably be true, and mathematically demonstrable, that the less each individual expends on himself, the more he might afford to contribute to the public support.

'If (says he) a new plan must be adopted, and if property, instead of expenditure, must be attacked, it becomes a matter of nice discussion, whether the extraordinary contribution should be raised by a tax on capital, or a tax on income, or by blending the two together, which, though the most complicated, yet being unquestionably the justest, ought to be preferred. What I mean is, that every man should pay, instead of 10 *per cent.* on his income, $\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* on his capital, and 5 *per cent.* on his income, by which persons who had no capital, would be greatly relieved, and those who were possessed of considerable property, would pay more in proportion to their opulence, than under the system that is proposed.

'Almost the only objection to this plan is, the difficulty of ascertaining the value of a man's capital.'

There appears to us at least one other objection: the present tax on income may prove, in many cases, partial: but would the plan proposed by Sir John Sinclair be less so? Land, he classes as income. Reckoning land, which produces a clear annual rental of one thousand pounds, at 25 years' purchase; then property worth £. 25,000, if it be in land, will not be required to contribute more than will be demanded from property of £. 10,000 value which shall be deemed *capital*. Such great tenderness shewn to the landed interest could not be very encouraging to industry, and ill accords with the professed object, *that those who were possessed of considerable property should pay in proportion to their opulence.*

Art. 33. *The Substance of a Speech made by Lord Auckland in the House of Peers*, 8th January 1799, on the 3d Reading of the *Bill for granting certain Duties upon Income.* 8vo. 1s. Wright.

The political opinions of this Noble Lord being so generally known, and the subject of the speech before us having been so fully discussed, many remarks will not now be necessary. The principle of gradual rise in taxation, or 'of requiring a higher proportion from the higher classes,' his Lordship thinks, is objectionable, as having a levelling tendency; and 'that it would amount to neither more nor less than the introduction of a plan for equalizing fortunes; and to the implied inference, that, because a man possesses much, therefore more shall be taken from him than is proportionably taken from others.' On the merits of this objection, there will be various opinions. His Lordship has not thought it necessary to add weight to it by argument.

The noble Lord endeavours to prove that every species of annuity or income is equally valuable. He demands;

'Will it be contended, that, in point of real value, an unsettled estate, which its owner will leave to his son, is of more worth to him, than if the same estate were for his life only, and already settled on his son and his descendants? Would an estate so settled for life with remainder to his son, be more valuable to him, than it would be, if he had no son, and it were settled on some distant relation or on a stranger?

stranger? And if on a stranger, how is it more valuable to the possessor than any other annuity for life?'

The cases here supposed do not seem selected on account of their difficulty. All property left by those who have no children must, in course, go to more distant relations, or to strangers: but how will any of the cases mentioned apply to that of a man having children, whose annuity nevertheless expires with him, or is perhaps only for a short term of years, and who must depend on what he can save during the term, for the maintenance of himself and his family after its expiration?

The change in political opinions which has of late years taken place in this country, is strikingly exemplified in the following paragraph of this speech; in which, alluding to some expressions in his letters addressed to the Earl of Carlisle, written in 1779, and which were now quoted by the Earl, in debate, Lord A. says,

'If however the Noble Lord had adverted with his usual accuracy to the context of the passages which he thought proper to cite, he would have found that they related to a voluntary contribution to be dependent on the enthusiasm of the contributors; or if to a forced and general contribution, then to be dependent on a mere voluntary disclosure of income. At the period of which I speak, it never entered into the minds of the most enlightened statesmen (and I appeal to a Noble and Learned Friend * who now hears me, and was conversant in the discussions to which I refer) that it could be practicable to establish a forced and general contribution on the only just and efficient system of a forced disclosure.'

POETRY *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 34. *Sidney.* A Monody, occasioned by the Loss of the Victory Packet, on her Passage from Liverpool to Dublin, in Dec. 1798. 4to. 2s. Rickman.

We wish not to repress sensibility, when excited by unaffected sorrow: but there is something so singularly mechanical in the affliction which is said to have produced these lines, by anticipating the death of the two youths whom they were intended to bewail, and transferring them to two others who were not in the author's thoughts when they were written, that we must own their effect on our feelings to have been rather feeble.

The effusions of a poetical imagination, even in fictitious sorrow, if illumined by the slightest radiations of genius, and if not extremely wild, we are ever disposed to treat with lenity: but, when the best lines and sentiments of a production called a *Monody*, or whatever be its title, consist of *shreds and patches* from the writings of others, it cannot claim,—nor ought it, through tenderness, to receive—the praises due to works of real merit.

This monody may be very acceptable, perhaps, to the author's friends, and to the particular families which have been bereaved of their children by the calamity described; without being fit for the public eye, which can be repaid for perusal only by real poetical merit. What virtue can there be in the name of *Lycidas*, or *Sidney*, to compen-

* The Lord Chancellor.'

sate for defects of composition? The untimely death of dogs, cats, and birds, has often been bewailed with wit and ingenuity in the language of sorrow: but the merit of these fugitive pieces did not rest on the name of Cæsar, Pompey, or Selima.

Though the author calls on a Muse in the first stanza, he bids her get about her business in the second:

'Amid the sacred griefs which rend my heart,
What sympathizing Muse will bear a part?—
'Far hence be all the giddy train
Of fabled inspiration, light and vain.'

The title of SIDNEY, which, like LYCIDAS, seems merely to imply an individual, must perplex and embarrass those English readers who have not had a Sir Hugh Evans to tell them that "there *is* numbers in nouns," or have never heard of the Greeks writing and speaking in the *dual number*: for *Sidney* here implies *two* brothers sharing the same melancholy fate. The sorrow seems equally fictitious with the name. The author may, however, boast at least one requisite for a poet: for he *invents* not only the sorrow but the occasion; and indeed he has *found* so many scraps and allusions to his purpose in Milton, Gray, and other plaintive bards, that his compilation reminds us of what musicians call, not a *Monody*, but a *Medley*.

Art. 35. *Cambro-Britons*, an Historical Play, in Three Acts. First performed at the Theatre-Royal, Haymarket, July 21, 1798. With a Preface. Written by James Boaden, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1798.

Historical plays very rarely observe the truth of history. Faithfully to exhibit the march and issue of events in real life would not exactly answer the play-wright's purpose. Fiction must be invoked, in order to give a continued interest to the drama; and probability must be outraged, in order to surprise and give stage effect. Ghosts and spectres have lately received some countenance, to the no small satisfaction of the dramatic writer; who is happy, when put to a difficulty, to avail himself of the ready assistance of these preternatural beings. Hence a splendid and amusing scene is exhibited to the galleries, but good taste is always disgusted. Mr. Boaden, in order to produce a sudden reconciliation between Llewellyn (the hero of the piece) and his brother David, makes the tomb of their mother "ope its ponderous and marble jaws" to vomit forth her ghost; which being accomplished, the apparition magnificently ascends to the upper regions! Thus, by the intervention of this cerulean-coloured ghost, the angry hot-blooded Welshmen are prevented from destroying each other; a momentary change from hatred to love is effected; and David, who just before was in rebellion against his brother Llewellyn and anxious to deprive him of his mistress, returns to his allegiance, renounces his passion, and undertakes to conduct Elinor from Chester, where she was in captivity, to Llewellyn's retreat in the fastnesses of Snowdon. It must be confessed that this maternal ghost is not invoked for nothing, for no sprite could do more in less time: but was it necessary to oblige the tombs to give up their dead, in order to bring a rebellious brother to a sense of his duty? The

stage

stage cannot produce its proper moral effect by such a conduct. Are ghosts necessary to frighten to repentance? Is conscience so weak that it must be supernaturally aided before it can do its duty? Miserable erroneous doctrine! Would it not have been more judicious in the poet, to have brought the offending brother to seek for reconciliation with his prince by "compunctious visitings of nature?"

The piece in other respects is not ill conducted, and the characters are well delineated. Welsh scenery and Welsh bards are introduced; and Llewellyn, instead of being conducted to a miserable end, triumphs, and becomes the ally of Edward. The play abounds with loyal sentiments, and is calculated to inspire ardor against an invading enemy.

Art. 36. *The Patrons of Genius:* a Satirical Poem. With Anecdotes of their Dependents, Votaries, and Toad-eaters. Part the First. 4to. 2s. 6d. Parsons. 1798.

This poem will probably be read by all parties, as the author calls "a spade a spade," and favours neither power nor person, nor profession. It is written on the plan (so often adopted) of the first satire of Persius.

With respect to the little patronage at present bestowed on genius by the great, we must observe that the time for expecting specific sums for dedications, and remuneration for flattery, is past. Authors are now too numerous, and the great are too poor, for such commerce. If a work has real merit, the PUBLIC does more for it, by enabling the booksellers to give a price for the copy-right, than, in times when a Mecænas could be found, any author could ever expect from *individual patronage*. Pope, the first poet who ceased to solicit patronage, (except for the subscription to his Homer,) was the first who acquired a considerable fortune by the sale of his writings. Every man can dedicate, but every man cannot produce a great work. It is well known that, in all countries, as civilization approaches, hospitality recedes: so in literature, while the writers and readers are few, patronage is wanting to encourage ingenuity and diligence to instruct and amuse mankind.

The personages assailed in this satire have a sturdy foe to encounter. If, unluckily, some of our friends be among them, however we may wish to mount the stage in their defence, our interference might, possibly, have no other effect than to render future flagellation still more violent. We must therefore leave them to fight their own battles:—for, though Broughton, the Pugilist and Beaf-eater, when in Germany, having had a quarrel with some soldiers of a Hanoverian regiment, is said to have offered to fight every individual of that corps, provided he might have leave to return home when he had done; we cannot "screw our courage to the striking place" tight enough to fight *for* a whole regiment *maltraité* by one who might answer, perhaps, if asked his name,—"my name is *Legion*."

We shall therefore, without attempting a defence of the nominal culprits, merely bear our testimony to the abilities of the judge, and present our readers with the exordium to his poem; which will at once manifest the author's design, and serve as a specimen of the polish and force of his numbers:

'Beat to the ground at life's meridian stage,
Like fruit mature by equinoctial rage;
O'erwhelm'd with ills, by many a care consum'd,
Misfortune's child, to disappointment doom'd:
Perplex'd, dejected, doubtful what to do,
I summon'd all my friends:—My friends were two;
One was Petronius, Cassius one by name;—
'Twas but advice I wanted—and they came.
The first, endow'd with ev'ry gentle grace,
Smooth was his speech, and smoother was his face;
Trim his apparel, courtier-like his air—
A wond'rous fav'rite of the young and fair.
Nor yet of worth or honour did he lack:
Strong, tho' complying, like a supple-jack.
'My other friend was hewn from sterner stuff.
Rude, unrefin'd, impracticable, rough,
Beneath a misanthrope's unseemly crust,
He hid a heart courageous, kind, and just:
Thought, war, and travel, and the hand of Care,
Before the time had stripp'd his forehead bare;
Had robb'd his eyes of fire, his cheeks of bloom,
And o'er his visage cast a turbid gloom:
Yet still with nerves unbroke, and brow elate,
Firm, proud, and patient, he derided Fate.
'So the tall oak, by winds impetuous left
With mangled branches, and of leaves bereft,
Amid the tempest lifts its head on high,
And nods defiance at the threat'ning sky.
'These friends and I were met in close divan;
And thus the tenor of their counsel ran:—'

We shall not cite personal accusations in the subsequent text,—nor the notes, which are written with still more spleen and personal obloquy,—but hasten to p. 36; where, after a bitter invective against the Whig Club in the aggregate, the poet exclaims:

'No Whig is Cassius:—I should blush to see
My name enroll'd in such society:
A drinking, brawling, singing, motley crew,
Made up of rogues of ev'ry shape and hue:
Insolvent debtors, swindlers, gamesters, rooks,
Discarded statesmen, disappointed dukes.
'Gods! how my bile o'erflows when men like these
Corrupt society's most loathsome lees;
Amaze the welkin with an empty cry
Of Justice, Rights of Man, and Liberty,
As if the villain, whom no ties can bind
In private life, can cherish all his kind!
'On that dread day, for come it surely must,
When pow'r abus'd shall render up its trust,
O! my poor country, ere thou lift'st the lance,
Contemplate well the destinies of France.

See

See there! Oh! see o'er all her fertile plains,
With killing gripe, how cruel famine reigns!
See towns demolish'd, villages consum'd!
See all that's virtuous to the scaffold doom'd!
And listen how the troublous air rebounds
With an accurst society of sounds!
A horrid concert—harmony of hell—
The victim's dying groan,—the murd'rer's yell;
The whoop of civil war,—the cannon's roar,
While Discord claps her wings, distilling gore,
And Tyranny's dark genius laughs to see
The drops pollute the face of Liberty!—
Whose hateful work was this? The Whigs of Gaul,
Their country's boasting champions, did it all.
With furious rage they pull'd a tyrant down,
And then, with rage more fell, set up their own.'

Notwithstanding this Philippic against the Whigs, the author seems to have no partiality for Tories:—neither the Royal Family nor nobles are flattered, nor ever supposed to do any thing right:—nor can we rank him with Jacobins and Revolutionists.

He complains in his preface, and in the opening of the poem, of something——we know not what:—but if ever he was in humour with the world before his misfortune happened, it has had a marvellous effect on his temper! His disorder is, peradventure, the *jaundice*, which has discoloured persons as well as things:—or, perhaps, his complaint is *bilious*.

Art. 37. *The Battle of the Nile*, a Poem: by William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1799.

We hope that we shall not offend any of the preceding patriotic candidates for poetical fame, who have celebrated this signal and important victory, if we should deem the poem before us the best production on the subject, that has come to our knowlege. It possesses more nerve, more poetry, and a wider range of detail and description.

The events in Egypt, subsequently to Buonaparte's landing, are accurately related, in lines which would not disgrace Dryden. One inaccuracy, however, will be laid to Mr. Sotheby's charge, arising from credulity in the rumour of the death of the French leader, p. 13, where it is said:

'Hark, the loud voice of rumour loads the gale,
And Europe spreads from realm to realm the tale:
He rests in death, the dream of Glory o'er,
He rests untimely on a barbarous shore!—
Not in the front of War, mid Armies slain!—
Fell the bold Conqueror, bleeding on the plain,
While Glory wav'd her banner o'er his head,
And sooth'd the hero, as his spirit fled:
Lo! there he lies, by treach'ry girt around;
The grim Assassin sternly eyes the wound,
Taunts the Invader, as he groans in Death,
And loads with Ægypt's curse his parting breath.'

but,

but, as Prior says:

"Odzooks! must one swear to the truth of a song?"

Mr. Sotheby was not singular in his belief of this rumour, which had penetrated every part of Europe; nor is the fallacy yet totally discredited among those who so ardently wished for the event.

After the lines just cited, Mr. S. paints, with a glowing pencil, many of the revolutionary horrors in France, and the insidious arts with which she compassed the ruin, devastation, carnage, and plunder of other countries; particularly Switzerland. Speaking of the happiness of the latter, he says:

'Did none resist?—before the invading host
None fall in arms upon his native coast?
A race went forth—the women mock'd at fear,
Fought mid the ranks, and fell the warrior near—
A race went forth—the grandsire, father, son,
March'd side by side and deem'd the battle won;—
March'd where their sires of old had proudly bled,
And clash'd their iron shields as Austria fled!—
Ah, hapless race! in vain each bosom glow'd,
And life, thro' all, one kindred current flow'd!
Gaul! by thy fraud subdu'd, the patriot band
Dy'd with fraternal blood each murderous hand:
While thou aloof, upon the mountain height
Towerd'st like a vulture hanging o'er the fight;
And, when the slaughter ceas'd upon the plain,
Did'st rush in triumph down, and spoil the slain.'

The last of these lines, we think, is the most feeble in the poem, *Did'st* has scarcely been admitted in good poetry, since it was stigmatized by Pope;

"While expletives their feeble aid *do* join."

Mr. S. admirably describes our military ardour in arming to repel invasion—the Foe's vain attempts on Ireland—and his threats against England:—then bids 'Albion beware!

'Trust not their oath, till heav'n accepts their pray'r—
Have we not seen their harlot Goddess crown'd,
While frantic elders howl'd the shrine around?
Seen their pledg'd hand, to still their rav'nous host,
Unbar th' associate town, and ransom'd coast?
On fear's bow'd neck, their yoke of freedom chain,
Force states, self-rul'd, beneath a tyrant reign;
And cast proud Venice, that espous'd the wave,
At Austria's feet, a tributary slave—'

—and terminates the poem by recommending firmness in resistance, and in the support of our government and religion.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 38. *An Introduction to English Grammar:* intended also to assist young Persons in the Study of other Languages, and to remove many of the Difficulties which impede their Progress in Learning. 4to. 2s. 6d. Phillips, Lombard-Street.

It-

It has been observed that, in the Augustan age of English literature, we could not boast of either a dictionary or a grammar of our language; or at least of any books that might be said to reduce our vernacular tongue to a fixed standard. This defect has been supplied by Dr. Johnson's dictionary, and Bishop Lowth's grammar: and perhaps it is not one of the least of the merits of those works, that they have induced scholars to pay attention to a language which for copiousness and vigour is exceeded by few; the capacity of which for harmonious modulation is sufficiently manifest in the writings of our poets; and which perhaps wants only regularity to make it complete. That this regularity is unattainable, without a sacrifice of the greatest excellencies of the language, is generally allowed: but surely every attempt to explain the analogy between words and the ideas of which they are the symbols, to mark their relations, and to ascertain the different modes of action and passion, with the circumstantials of time and place, must be of general use:—for, if a great part of the disputes among mankind arise from the obscurity and ambiguity of the terms which they use, we cannot take too much pains in assigning to every word a clear and precise meaning, both singly and in conjunction with others.

The author of the work before us seems to have been actuated by very laudable motives, and to have bestowed much time and thought on the subject.—Of his plan, a judgement may be formed from the following extract from his preface:

'Although an attempt to become useful may not in general want an apology, yet this INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR requires one. The public are in possession of so many English Grammars, among which are many good ones, that my entering the lists might make me appear like the knights-errant of old, who, coming from distant regions, suddenly appeared in a tournament, and threw the gauntlet to the stoutest men in the land; if, to clear myself of the reproach of Quixotism, which I do not wish to incur, I did not give an idea of my plan.

'I will venture to say, that when young persons understand this Introduction, they, to say no more, will know as much of English grammar as most of those who have been taught by the Grammars which are commonly put into children's hands. But the design of this little work is more particularly to open the way to other languages, and to lessen those difficulties which are apt to discourage young people, when they come to study Latin, French, &c. because having little or no idea, and certainly no habit, of some things unnecessary in English, such as making adjectives agree with substantives, &c. they naturally dislike a study which at first view presents trouble, and very little to entice them: for it is well known how dry the study of languages is at first.

'Here I cannot help taking notice of an opinion, the more dangerous as it originated amongst scholars, though it has been propagated by others, who know little about the matter, "Let a youth," say they, "learn Latin, and he will know his English grammar." That may be true, but the question is, whether the knowledge he will acquire of it in that manner, may not cost him much more

trouble,

trouble, and require much more time, than if the first notions of grammar had been given him in his own language; and whether he may not be disgusted with Latin, before he knows his English Grammar, which is sometimes the case. For my part, I think, that it is much easier to make a youth understand what is a substantive and what an adjective, by applying them to the English words, *good man*, than to the Latin ones, *bonus homo*; and if any one still persist in a contrary opinion, my answer will be, prove it, *et eris mihi magnus Apollo*. We might as well put under the care of a dancing-master, a child before he can stand on his legs, saying that he could not fail to know how to walk by the time he should be an adept in dancing.

'To this Introduction I have added *Directions for Parsing*, which to some may seem long; but I hope, when read attentively, nothing in them will appear unnecessary to my design. I am convinced that no one can translate properly, or even feel the beauties of an English book, who cannot perceive the right construction of phrases, or who mistakes the tenses of verbs; I have always found a deficiency in that point, attended with an almost invincible difficulty to young people, when they try to translate English into any other language; and I dare say many teachers have found great difficulty, if not in pointing out the different meanings, at least in making their pupils remember their distinctions, so as to make use of them when necessary. I have therefore said what seemed to me necessary to obviate these difficulties.'

There is something peculiar in Mr. Bridel's * disposition of the subject, and the terms which he uses are rather uncommon: yet we cannot but allow that they are significant;—and although it may require more attention to understand this work, than young persons may always be willing to bestow, it will reward them for their labour; it may also be of great service to foreigners who are desirous of informing themselves respecting the principles of our language.

Art. 39. *The Infant's Friend:* in Two Parts. By Mrs. Lovechild. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Newbery.

The first of these volumes is a spelling-book, the second consists of reading-lessons. So numerous are publications of this kind, that it is difficult to assign to each its distinct or peculiar office or merit. Few are totally destitute of use, though some are better adapted to the purpose than others. The present work, it is said, (particularly the first volume,) may either serve alone for teaching rudiments, or prove a convenient appendage to any of the ingenious inventions now to be purchased for the purpose of rendering *beginnings* pleasant, and point out how to use them, so that they may be *really* an amusement.

The writer has bestowed considerable pains in collecting and arranging the materials; and if instructors will attend to the directions which are given, or take those measures of their own which

* The work is said to be printed for E. P. Bridel, Master of an Academy at Stoke Newington; and we therefore conclude that he is the author of it.

natural

natural good sense may suggest, the volumes will no doubt prove advantageous. In the second, the lessons lead very properly to the distinctions of nouns, adjectives, verbs, &c. and they include certain short narratives, which may afford pleasure and instruction.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 40. *A View of the Causes and Consequences of English Wars,* from the Invasion of the Country by Julius Cæsar to the present Time. By Anthony Robinson. 8vo. pp. 241. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

This compilation from the English historians, but chiefly taken from Dr. Henry, appears to have been made for the purpose of impressing on the public mind, as a grand political axiom, the opinion that, whatever may have been the pretences or whosoever the authors of a war, the event has been always fatal to the nation at large.

Mr. R.'s style is much too inflated, and not unfrequently vulgar; as when he says of Henry the Third, that he was 'a coward, a liar, and some think a fool,' p. 42.—and again p. 80.

'How mankind shall be governed in future, it is impossible to say: but that they have hitherto been governed by *force* cannot be denied.

'Muscular strength has indeed been subdued by the energies of mind: but the advantage to man has only been, that the cunning of a pick-pocket has succeeded to the strength of a ruffian.'

He is the panegyrist of Henry the Seventh and James I. merely because they were lovers of peace;—and even the immortal King William loses all claim to *his* respect, because he opposed Louis XIV. in the field.

The wars of the present century, as being nearer to observation, are treated with intemperate prejudice, and with much more declamation than argument. Concerning that contest in which we are now engaged, Mr. R. tells us that so acute are his reflections, and so dreadful his forewarnings, that 'the pen trembles in his hand.'

Art. 41. *Copies of Original Letters from the Army of General Bonaparte in Egypt,* intercepted by the Fleet under the Command of Admiral Lord Nelson. With an English Translation. 8vo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Wright.

These intercepted and unquestionably authentic letters contain a highly-interesting mass of information, respecting Bonaparte's wild Egyptian expedition, and Nelson's ever-memorable and glorious victory. Some of these articles of correspondence were written by General Bonaparte himself; others by officers of distinction, military and naval; and many passages in them are aptly illustrated by the translator's notes. A well-written Introduction is prefixed; in which the author has taken especial care to evince his loyalty, zeal, and patriotism, by a torrent of execration, which he unceasingly pours out against the commander of the "Army of the East," his wretched followers, and the existing rulers of the French nation in general. For the honour of human nature, it were to be wished that our continental enemies had not afforded him such incontrovertible occa-

sions as they have done, for the exercise of his distinguished talent at invective. He has, nevertheless, whatever be the ornament of his style, fairly communicated to the world a most acceptable publication.—Were it not for the multiplicity and pressure of articles, in every class of literature, now waiting for admission into our work, we could have enriched it with extracts which would have afforded much gratification to the generality of our readers: but we must content ourselves with recommending to them a perusal of the collection at large.

Art. 42. *An Authentic Narrative of the Proceedings of his Majesty's Squadron*, under the Command of Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, from its sailing from Gibraltar to the Conclusion of the glorious Battle of the Nile; drawn up from the Minutes of an Officer of Rank in the Squadron. 8vo. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

This account has already appeared in different newspapers, and is now republished in the form of a pamphlet. The editor, in an address prefixed to the narrative, makes use of some expressions which are too unqualified, but which are in a great degree excusable in the warmth of admiration for one of the most brilliant victories ever atchieved, and which was distinguished by many peculiar circumstances: particularly in the time of commencing the attack. It was noon, (on the 1st of August) when the British fleet arrived in sight of the Pharos of Alexandria; and then, it may be supposed, they could not be less than six leagues distant from the French fleet: which was at least equal in force, and was placed to defend themselves and the harbour, in such a position as they believed to be most advantageous, their flanks being defended by gun-boats and a battery on the land. No time was lost, nor was the attack delayed from a preference of fighting by day-light. The Admiral's plan had been long formed; and the fleets were closely engaged by sun-set, viz.; at half past six. 'At about seven o'clock, total darkness had come on; but the whole hemisphere was, with intervals, illuminated by the fire of the hostile fleets.' By this light, the battle was fought.

The narrative is plain and clear: but, in order to give correct ideas, the account should have been accompanied with a plan of the port, and of the position of the enemy's fleet.

Art. 43. *An authentic Narrative of the Mutiny on board the* [*Transport*] *Ship Lady Shore*; with Particulars of a Journey through Part of Brazil: in a Letter, dated "Rio Janeiro, 18th January 1798," to the Rev. John Black, Woodbridge, Suffolk, from Mr. John Black, one of the surviving Officers of the Ship. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons, &c. 1798.

The account of this mutiny is short, and the circumstances are interesting. The proposed destination of the ship was to New South Wales; and a party of military were embarked in her, who were to have landed at Port Jackson. The mutineers were principally Frenchmen. After having murdered Captain Wilcocks and the chief mate, they put into the long-boat, when near the coast of Brazil, the remaining officers, and several others; first compelling them to sign certificates that none of them would serve against the French, for a year

and a day; and, likewise stating that the petty officers and seamen, not put into the long boat, were detained against their inclinations. In return, the mutineers, who had chosen two Frenchmen for their first and second captains, gave a paper certifying that it was not by any ill treatment received that they had been induced to the measures which they had taken, 'but on account of their having been trepanned into the British service, without being able to obtain any redress.' The long boat soon arrived at Rio Grande, and the ship was afterward taken by a French frigate.—The narrative is inscribed to his Excellency the Chevalier D'Almeida, Minister Plenipotentiary from the Court of Lisbon to that of London, 'as a testimony of gratitude' for the hospitality shewn to the narrator and his fellow-sufferers at the Portuguese settlements in the Brazils.

Among the circumstances which attracted the notice of the writer while at the Brazils, he mentions the almost incredible number of cattle which are killed merely for the sake of the skins. The number of skins exported annually from Rio Janeiro alone was said to be nearly 400,000. The price of a fine bullock is a dollar.

Art. 44. *Memoirs of Colonel Edward Marcus Despard.* By James Bannantine, his Secretary when King's Superintendant at Honduras, &c. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1799.

Mr. Bannantine enumerates the active public services of his friend Col. Despard in his professional capacity, and complains that this gallant, but at present unfortunate, gentleman, has been much injured through the misrepresentations of certain enemies; notwithstanding that he has repeatedly received assurances 'that his services were not forgotten, and would receive their reward.' It is added 'that his attempts, for nearly these eight years, to get his accounts with government settled, have been equally fruitless and unsuccessful, although he has claims to a large amount.' We doubt not the Colonel's merit as a commanding officer, in Jamaica, on the Mosquito-Shore, and at Honduras; and we are the more concerned on finding this account of his present embarrassments concluding with the following paragraph: 'Respecting the nature of his imprisonment in Cold Bath Fields, it would be improper here to enter into any detail or investigation. It is enough to say, that after having been kept in confinement for several weeks last spring, he was released, no charge being substantiated against him; but immediately after the suspension of the *Habeas Corpus* act, he was again arrested, without any specific charge, and has now been kept a close prisoner for above eight months in a House of Correction, without any attempt to bring him to trial.'—Surely there are some *circumstances* attending this apparently hard case, which are not yet before us. *Audi alteram partem.*

Art. 45. *An Oblique View of the Grand Conspiracy against Social Order*, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

This Oblique View is sketched with a porcupine-quill, which can scratch, but cannot write. It is really not our fault if the Anti-Jacobin literature does not amuse the public. We are charged, indeed, by this and by every unsuccessful author of the party, in his turn, with a conspiracy to bring his writings and all that is valuable in society

into disrepute. Genius cannot be brought into disrepute. Mr. Burke, whether he wrote to encourage the foundation, by rebellion, of a republic in America, or to discourage the foundation, by rebellion, of a republic in France, was alike secure of a world of admirers, and obtained the praise of the Monthly Review.

Art. 46. *Infant Institutes*, Part the First: or, a Nurserical Essay on the Poetry, lyric and allegorical, of the earlier Ages. With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 69. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

"Blessed be the man who invented laughing." We esteem ourselves singularly happy, when a writer forces us to change the grave and serious aspect of criticism for the cheerful smile, and enables us to shake the cobwebs off the heart by a good and genuine laugh. The author before us seemed at first to be of this kind: but the rogue has disappointed us. His comments on the *Lullaby Muse*, or the nonsense which has been invented for the diversion of children, have some humour: but, alas! he wears it threadbare, and the acrimony of politics is seen through it.

As it may be difficult by description to give an idea of this work, in which a gentleman of some learning and abilities has in a strange way endeavoured to amuse himself, and hopes also to amuse others, we shall extract a part of his *illustrious* commentary on the *celebrated* verses,

"I sing a song o' sixpence
A pocket full of rye,
And four and twenty blackbirds
Baked in a pie."

'If it should be wondered why the black-birds and the rye are particularly specified in this place, a sufficient reason, perhaps, might be given for our author's choice, both as to the one and the other. With respect to *rye*, the author might probably intend it as a final abbreviation, according to the orthography of his day, of the word treasu*rye*; just as it is said, though I know not how truly, that a certain singing-woman, famous for picking up great quantities of this kind of rye from those who have not wit enough to keep it, is called *Mara*, because her name is Macnam*ara*.—But this conjecture I must leave to the critics.—Here then we see what it is that these birds have to chirp and whistle for; lest however this might appear to be rather too satirical, the poet has artfully contrived to soften it, by entitling them black-birds, as expressive of their freedom of speech; the propriety of which I might not myself perhaps have fully ollfacted, had it not been for the observation of a friend, that the very note of the black-bird always inspired him with the idea of liberty.

'*Twee . . ti . tru . . ti . too . ti . titi . Tweew.*'

"*O quantum est in rebus inane!*" Does this writer mean to ridicule some strange commentaries on the Revelation, which proceed with a latitude of interpretation almost equal to the above?

The author has however brought together, in one view, the quantity of nonsense formerly taught to children; which must suggest the propriety of substituting better Infant Institutes.

RELIGIOUS, *&c.*

Art. 47. *A Guide to the Church*, in several Discourses; to which are added, two Postscripts; the first, to those Members of the Church

Church who occasionally frequent other Places of Public Worship; the second to the Clergy. Addressed to William Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, L.L.B. a Presbyter of the Church of England. 8vo. pp. 488. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

In the dedication to Mr. Wilberforce, this author deems some apology necessary for addressing to him discourses, many parts of which have no claim to his notice, being calculated only for the use of those *misinformed* persons for whom they were originally written. These *misinformed* persons we find in the sequel to be all those who dissent from the doctrines and discipline of the Church of England as by law established, of whatever sect or denomination they may be; for it appears, from the whole tenor of scripture, (it seems,) that the only appointed road to heaven lies through the Church of Christ on earth [which is the Church of England]:—for the church is the spouse of Christ, whose office it is to bring forth children unto God;—and it is from the arms of this spiritual mother that all the legitimate children of the Father are received. To trace the church through its several progressive stages, from its original establishment in Paradise, where the good news of a Saviour was first delivered to fallen man,—through its infant condition,—and from its days of contraction in the ark, when it was confined to one single family, to its subsequent enlargement in the descendants of Abraham; from its wandering state in the wilderness, and its more complete settlement in the land of Canaan, down to that fulness of time when our Saviour came in the flesh to visit it; our author justly says, would lead us into too wide a field. It is our happiness, he adds, that we live in that stage of the church, which may be considered as the completion of every former dispensation. Jesus Christ, the head of the church, by purifying it from the corruptions which it had contracted, and restoring its worship to the spiritual standard in which its perfection consists, has (as it were) put his finishing hand to the establishment of it, on the plan best calculated to secure the purpose which he had in view.

After this statement, Mr. D. informs us, p. 476, that 'some well-disposed people have found a way of satisfying themselves on this head, by making the Church of Christ and Church of England mean two different things.—That *ignorant* people should be carried away with so plausible an idea, can be no matter of surprise: they have been and always will be deceived by sounds:—but that men of reading and education should adopt it affords one proof, among many, that experience does not always furnish wisdom.'

We need say no more concerning this work, than to remark that the author is *at variance* with Bp. Hoadly and Archdeacon Paley, and *even* with Bp. Warburton; and not in *perfect agreement* with Mr. Wilberforce.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 48. *The Fall of Papal Rome recommended to the Consideration of England.* By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, L.L.B. Author of a Guide to the Church. 8vo. pp. 45. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

In this sensible discourse, the preacher takes occasion, from the application of several prophecies to Papal Rome, to point out some circumstances which present events force, as it were, on immediate notice; with the view of impressing on the minds of his hearers, by way of antidote to the growing infidelity of the day, a full conviction of the superintending providence of that all-wise Governor of the universe, "whose counsel shall stand, and who will do all his pleasure." He concludes by observing that 'these are eventful times. An important page in the great history of the world is now before us. How far this nation may be concerned in the contents of it, God only knows. But it is sufficient for us to know, that, if the Christian religion is to be preserved in this country, the professors must be in earnest upon the subject. Possessing the form of the church, we must also possess that sanctifying influence of the Holy Spirit, which was designed to accompany it; without which we are in the condition of the church of Sardis mentioned in the Revelations, "We have a name that we *live*, and are *dead*." Rev. iii. 1.'

Art. 49. Preached Aug. 13, 1798, before the Reading and Henley Associations, the Woodley Cavalry, and the Reading Volunteers, at the Consecration of the Colours of the Reading Association. By Richard Valpy, D. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 1s. Elmsly and Bremner, &c.

Ardently and frequently have Protestant Divines prayed for the downfall of the Pope! yet, when the venerable old man was hurled from his throne, and his triple crown was torn from his head by French violence, how few have even noticed the circumstance! Dr. Valpy is an exception. He seems to have given the subject much thought, and he apprehends that all must be struck with the completion of prophecy by this event. 'In the year 538, (he says,) the empire of the Goths was abolished in Rome, and from that time the Pontifical power advanced with rapid strides, until it became, by its influence and authority, the most extensive dominion in Europe. If this epoch be admitted, the period mentioned by the prophets fixes the destruction of the Pontifical authority to the present year, in which the Pope was forced to fly from Rome by the arms of France.'—Copious notes are subjoined to justify the calculation, on which we say nothing.

Dr. Valpy proceeds to assure us that order will arise out of the present anarchy; and he expresses his wish that we should cherish what he calls an *humble* hope that "*the Lord hath chosen England for himself.*" If there be ground for such hope, all Englishmen ought *to be always ready* (text, Matth. xxiv. 44.) for every service which their country may require.

Affixed is the Consecration prayer; in which the Association 'dedicate themselves to the service and glory of God, and *in his name set up their banners.*'

Art. 50. Preached at the Consecration of a Chapel at Bradley, by the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Worcester, 12th Sept. 1798. By the Rev. John Plumptre, M. A. Prebendary of Worcester. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons.

Mr. P. has here advanced all that his subject required, from Matth. xviii. 20. Indeed, the expediency and necessity of appointed places for

for religious worship must be evident, and there is no reason why they should not be appropriate.

Art. 51. Preached August 17, 1798, before the Armed Association of the united Parishes of St. Margaret and St. John, Westminster; on the Consecration of the Colours. To which is prefixed the Ceremony observed on the Occasion. By the Rev. Charles Fynes, LL.D. &c. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

Dr. F. commences this discourse with an account of the miraculous interpositions in favour of the Jewish people, their almost miraculous ingratitude and infidelity, and their subsequent punishment. This picture he exhibits as an awful lesson to every nation which enjoys divine revelation and protection, not to forget nor deny their God. While he is sorry in reflecting that the people of this privileged country are not sufficiently grateful and obedient to the "Father of all mercies," he is consoled by thinking that we are not to be degraded by a comparison with those who have daringly renounced the worship of God, and blasphemed the Saviour of the world:—he hopes that the solemnity which has called his audience together may inspire them with fortitude, established on religious principles;—and he concludes with complimenting the associated corps on their respectable military appearance, and with his assurance that, were they really called to defend their King and Country against an invading foe, they would *quit themselves like men.*

Art. 52. *On the peculiar Necessity of renewed and vigorous Exertions on the Part of the Clergy, in the present extraordinary Conjuncture, for the Support of Religion, Peace, and Order, &c.* preached at the primary Visitation of the Bishop of Chichester, at Hastings, August 20, 1798. By J. Lettice, D.D. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

By what rule of interpretation, the text Isa. xl. 31. can be supposed to refer to the apostles and first preachers of the gospel, or the first part of it, *They who wait on the Lord*, can be solely appropriated to the clergy or 'the ministers of the altar,' we are unable to divine. The text is a general promise to men of piety and virtue, whether clergy or laity; a promise which ought to animate all to religious exertion, and to keep the pious and conscientious from being cast down and dispirited in the worst and most unpromising times. Dr. L. seems aware, at the conclusion of his discourse, that he has not been altogether correct in limiting the description in his text to the clergy; and he calls on all the church militant, as comprising all sects and parties, to unite against the foes of religion, order, liberty, and peace. To stimulate their exertions, he tells them that 'the very existence of Christianity may depend on the combat:' but on this latter score we have no fears, since a greater than Dr. L. has told us that against the Gospel *neither Death nor Hell shall prevail.*

Art. 53. *Rome is Fallen!* Preached at the Visitation held at Scarborough, June 5, 1798. By Francis Wrangham, M. A. 4to. 1s. Dilly.

This sermon will reflect considerable credit on its author. We know not which most to commend, its learning, its manliness, its seriousness, or its liberality. It appears to us that, to a virtuous and conscientious

scientious diligence in discharging the duties of his profession, Mr. W. unites the utmost candour and generosity of sentiment. He rejoices at the fall of Papal power, without the acrimony of a polemic; and with zeal and learning he maintains his own principles, without feeling any narrow and ungenerous sentiments respecting those who do not come within the pale of the established communion.

From Rev. xiv. 8. he discourses on the *Fall of Papal Rome*, supposing that this is meant by *Babylon* in the text, though he does not pretend to undertake the developement of the mysterious pages of the Apocalypse; which he, with critical justice represents as 'barbarous even to solecism in its style, of an involved and intricate construction, and loaded with dark and apparently-wild allegory.' To this his own judgment of it as a composition, he subjoins in a note the opinions of several learned men; as that of Scaliger, who said *Calvinus sapuit quia non scripsit in Apocalypsin;* and that of Dr. South, who asserted that "it either finds a man mad, or leaves him so." We sincerely wish that the extreme difficulty, which the most able biblical scholars have found in attempting to interpret consistently the mysterious contents of this book, could operate to restrain the propensity of some modern Christians; who seem to read their Bible and their newspaper together, make Gazettes their expositors of St. John's visions, and apply the strange allegories of this book to the whole chain of recent occurrences. Such persons may mean well, but they are not justified by common sense and sound criticism. The passage to which Mr. Wrangham refers may be held up as a vivid figurative delineation of the crimes and punishment of Papal Rome, and he *ingeniously accommodated* to them: but the judicious critic will advance with extreme caution in this dangerous career.

As Christians and Protestants, however, we must be pleased, not that the latter days of a venerable individual are embittered, but that a power which exercised the most grievous spiritual tyranny over Kings and their people is subverted, and that *she, who made all nations to drink of the wine of the wrath of her fornication*, is tumbled from her "bad eminence."

By the fall of the Papal power and authority, the protestant church of Christ is not indeed delivered from all its enemies. Vice and infidelity prevail in an alarming degree; and therefore Mr. W. proceeds to exhort his brethren the clergy to peculiar diligence and assiduity. His admonitions are serious and pertinent, and merit much attention. He particularly cautions his brethren against secularity and lukewarmness; not that he wishes to see the clergy secluded from innocent and cheerful intercourse with their fellow-creatures, nor animated by a flaming zeal which shall consume all liberality, and prompt them in the cause of religion to proclaim *on earth* WAR, ILL-WILL *towards men*. No. 'Let us not (says he) exhibit our mistaken godliness at the expence of our humanity, nor erect an altar to Faith upon the ruins of the temple of Charity.'

In noticing the military associations, of which the clergy are in some places members, Mr. W. offers it as his opinion that they ought not as yet, if they *have no sword, to sell their garments and buy one*, but to content themselves with using the spiritual weapons belonging to

their

their profession. By diligently and faithfully wielding these against the enemies of religion and of our country, he says, addressing himself to his brethren, 'we shall have done all that we were permitted, perhaps all that we ought to have been permitted to do: and if—for some mysterious but unquestionably wise purpose of Providence—we be indeed ordained in our turn *to drink at the hand of the Lord the cup of his fury, to drink the dregs of the cup of trembling, and wring them out*—we shall possess the consciousness of having contributed our most zealous endeavours to avert the ruin of our country; a consciousness which, sustaining and consoling us amidst our sufferings, will in itself be our *exceeding great reward*."

This discourse is enriched by many valuable notes; at the beginning of which Mr. W. tells us that he has been *falsely* suspected of being the author of *the Pursuits of Literature*.

Art. 54. Preached, August 25, 1798, before the East-Stonehouse Foot Association, and published at their Request, by John Bidlake, A. B. &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Chapman.

We have perused this discourse with pleasure, for the preacher appears not as a party-man, but as a friend to truth and virtue. He is temperate and rational in speaking of the French revolution; and he gives a just account, we think, of religion in general, and of the Christian scheme in particular. As to the latter, he says, p. 31. 'we must look for it in its primitive state; not as it is found, distorted by narrow-bigotry, or disguised by sordid interest; not, as it too often is, mixed with the passions and temporal interests of designing men, and made the instrument of worldly ambition, coloured by human avarice and clothed in incongruous splendour.'—Again, when addressing himself immediately to the *Association*:—'True religion consists in a heart devoted to God, and a life of holiness. It is not the slave of sect or party. It is not subservient to worldly interests, nor basely submissive to the reigning humours of the day. Its object is uniform and unalterable righteousness. It does not consist in the offering of the lips, in a set of enthusiastic phrases of little meaning, and a heart full of spiritual pride, but it is at once sincere and ardent. *God hath shewed thee, O man, what is good*," &c.—These sentiments are worthy of dissemination.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'GENTLEMEN, Liverpool, 18th Feb. 1799.

'IN your Review for last month, on noticing Capt. Vancouver's relation of his having seen *black swans* at King George the Third's Sound, on the south-west coast of New Holland, you seem to doubt the existence of this *rara avis*, and to suppose that the birds taken for black swans might be cygnets.

'From the concurrent testimony of several, nay most, of the travellers who have visited New Holland, it appears, however, that black swans are really to be met with in almost every part of that country. In Governor Phillip's Voyage to Botany Bay, chap. xi. we are informed that, in an early excursion of the Governor to the north side of the harbour of Port Jackson, they met with a lake, on

which they first observed "a black swan, which species, though proverbially rare in other parts of the world, is here by no means uncommon, being found on most of the lakes. This was a very noble bird, larger than the common swan, and equally beautiful in form. On being shot at, it rose, and discovered that its wings were edged with white."

'In White's account of Botany Bay, p. 137, we have equally an account of their seeing, on a small salt water lagoon, nine black swans; which, though when upon the water they seemed perfectly black, when they rose, gave an opportunity of seeing some white feathers, which terminated the tip of each wing. Mr. White, however, says that their size appeared not equal to that of an European swan.

'Of the same kind, in all probability, were the birds observed by the gentlemen on board the Endeavour, both at Botany Bay and at Hervey's Bay; at the former place, among the aquatic birds seen, "one of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan, being nearly five feet high, and in shape somewhat resembling a pelican;" and at the latter place they saw among the shoals and sandbanks many large birds, "some in particular of the same kind as had been seen in Botany Bay, much bigger than swans, which were judged to be pelicans; but they were so shy that there was no getting within shot of them."

'I have not an opportunity, at present, of consulting other recent accounts of New Holland; but I am enabled to add a relation of those singular birds being both seen and caught by a Dutch navigator, on the west coast of that large island. It is given in the third volume of *Valentyn's Oud en nieuw Oost Indien*, Amsterdam 1726, and the voyage in which it occurs has not, I believe, ever been published in English. On the 6th of January 1697, *Willem de Vlaming* landed on that part of the main land of New Holland called the *Land of the Eendragt*, and near *Dirk Hartog's Bay*; where, in a lagoon, communicating with the sea, they found two and afterward more black swans, four of which they caught and took on board: bringing, however, only two of them alive to Batavia. This account is accompanied by an engraving, representing the lagoon with the black swans swimming on it, and the catching of one of them by a boat's crew.

'These facts seem to me sufficient to remove all scepticism as to the existence of black swans in New Holland; and presuming that you will not be displeased with the communication of the last, and my reminding you of the other instances of their being seen, I remain, Gentlemen,

'Your very humble Servant, S. H. W.'

We are obliged to this correspondent, for recalling to our recollection the above corroborations of Capt. V.'s statement, which we had forgotten, and which decidedly militate against our doubts.

The *quære* from Ipswich, from one of "the Friends," surely cannot be seriously proposed to us: but certainly we cannot seriously answer it.

In the last Appendix, p. 508. l. 26. for 'subordination,' read *insubordination*; p. 511. l. 12. from bottom, read *by deputations of deputations*; p. 519. l. 8. for '*du*,' read *de*; p. 580. l. 26. put a full stop after '*miraculous*,' and only a colon after *time*, in l. 28.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1799.

ART. I. *An authentic Account of the Embassy of the Dutch East-India Company to the Court of the Emperor of China*, in the Years 1794 and 1795; (subsequent to that of the Earl of Macartney;) containing a Description of several Parts of the Chinese Empire, unknown to Europeans; taken from the Journal of Andre Everard Van Braam, Chief of the Direction of that Company, and Second in the Embassy. Translated from the Original of M. L. E. Moreau de Saint-Mery. With a correct Chart of the Route. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Phillips, Debrett, &c. 1798.

CHINA is likely to continue to be an object of European curiosity, while it refuses free access to foreigners; and while it cherishes those manners and customs which, originating in the first ages of the world, form such a portrait of primeval civilization as might be deemed either ideal or embellished, were it not represented by a succession of eye-witnesses and authentic writers. Yet a country, inhabited by one of the most jealous nations on the globe, can be perfectly known only from the observations of many. Every traveller, indeed, adds a trait to the interesting picture; and the stronger the presumption appears of his having strictly adhered to the truth,—which, in accounts of distant countries, is frequently sacrificed to vanity,—the more value will be set on his communications.

The present narrative of the recent Dutch embassy to China bears evident indications of veracity, and will be a valuable addition to our literary stock of writings in this class, in proportion as it may be found to contain new information. M. Van Braam, as the second personage in that mission, had better opportunities of making observations, than those of inferior rank who were attached to it. The French editor assures us, also, in a prefixed advertisement, that the author had lost no time in making the inhabitants of other parts of the world, as far as depended on him, partakers in the sensations which he experienced. 'Doubly a painter, his pen and his pencil were constantly employed in depicting whatever he saw; and sparing neither pains nor expence, he may be said not to have suffered

any thing to escape him, which was worthy of the attention of a discerning public.'

We are given to understand, (if we mistake not,) that the Viceroy of Canton himself suggested to M. Van Braam the idea of a Dutch embassy to the Court of China, in order to congratulate the Emperor on the anniversary of his accession to the throne. The Commissaries General at Batavia, being informed by M. Van B. of this overture, thought proper to avail themselves of it, and appointed M. *Isaac Titzing* * ambassador. Among his suite, which does not appear to have been very numerous, were, in the capacity of interpreters, Messrs. *Agie* and *De Guignes*, both Frenchmen; besides whom, we also find frequently mentioned, and here called by a Portuguese term, a *Lingua*, or Chinese linguist.

The Dutch embassy proceeded from Canton in the latter end of November 1794, and arrived at Pekin on January the 9th, 1795; during which time they went through so many hardships, that it is not easy to conceive how they could reach the Chinese capital in health, or how the author could find himself disposed for taking any minutes on the journey. It seems, indeed, that he and M. De Guignes † were the only persons who kept a journal:—but, though M. Van Braam appears to have seen his companion's memorandums, we do not find that he was indebted to them for any of the matter exhibited in the present account. We are told, likewise, that the author's journal lay constantly open for the inspection of the gentlemen composing the Dutch embassy, and that it even was copied for the use of the ambassador himself. From these circumstances, M. Moreau de Saint-Mery, the French editor, (no doubt, on the authority of the author,) would have this account considered as demi-official: a claim to which, probably, there will be no exception.

We shall now present the reader with some extracts from this work, and reserve our general observations on it for another article, which will probably appear in our next Number.

Some part of the journey was made on the rivers; and M. Van Braam could not behold without astonishment the indefatigable zeal which the bargemen manifested night and day, and almost without taking rest, for its farther acceleration:

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* This gentleman is mentioned in a note, p. 282, to have been for some time resident at the court of Japan. If our information be correct, he is now settled at Bath.

† We understand that this gentleman, a son of the celebrated French Orientalist of that name, resides at *Macao*, for the purpose of pursuing his favourite study of Asiatic literature.

'Three

'Three times in the four-and-twenty hours they make a meal, which lasts little more than a quarter of an hour, and get but very little sleep. They do their business nevertheless with vigour, and with a degree of gaiety, which in other parts of the world is only to be met with upon parties of pleasure. No being on earth is fitter than the Chinese to endure fatigue, and to support a long continuance of labour. Provided care be taken to ensure him a sufficient refection at stated periods, there is no doubt of his always finding new strength for whatever laborious task he may be required to undertake.'

At *San-chan-tong*, the author observed several *mills*, which raise the water of the river above the banks; whence it runs into reservoirs, to be afterward diffused by means of canals and aqueducts over the fields which require irrigation. From M. Van Braam's description of them, we are led to suspect that the term *mill* is misapplied. The machine appears to us to be nothing but a *water wheel*. By referring to Sir G. Staunton's account of the British embassy, vol. iii. p. 335, octavo edit. we meet with a description of a machine exactly similar: it is there called a large and durable wheel, consisting of two unequal rims, &c. and is illustrated in the 4to edition by a neat engraving. M. Van Braam has however made some additional observations:

'To increase the velocity of the stream, separations are made in the river, so shaped and disposed, that they form a channel or water-course in the direction of the wheel. By means of this channel, the water when it approaches the wheel is a foot and even more above the level of the river, the consequence of which is a fall that increases the momentum of the fluid upon the flat bamboos, or ladle-boards of the wheel, to which they give greater rapidity of motion. But for this cause of acceleration, the wheel would bring the joints, full of water, but slowly upward, especially as they have nothing to counterbalance their weight on the other side.

'By this contrivance, the mill answers the intended purpose as completely as the most complicated European machine could do; and I will answer for it, that in China it does not occasion an expence of ten dollars. It seems to me, that the mere putting together of the pieces of which it is composed, is a new proof of the industry and intelligence of the Chinese.'

At *Nan-hang-chen*, M. Van Braam saw a handsome temple dedicated to Confucius. The hall in which the *Chap* * of the philosopher is exposed to view (for there is no image to represent him) is surmounted by a noble octagonal dome, such as M. Van Braam had never before remarked in any other pa-

* *Chap* is said in the notes to be a generical word which indicates a piece of board, or tablet, inscribed with the name of any one, or with some title designating him; and to which the same honours are paid that he would have a right to expect in person.

goda. The cupola of the dome is covered with gilding and paintings; and the divisions of the border, which correspond with the eight walls of the octagon, bear inscriptions that are acknowleged to be the most antient of any preserved in China. By a singular oversight, no translation of them is inserted, but their place is left open with blanks. In another apartment, adjoining to the former, are sixty-two tablets inscribed with letters of gold, and containing the names of the most celebrated disciples of Confucius.

The Chinese never scatter the seeds of vegetables with the hand, but sow them in furrows, and use a dibble. This regularity gives a pleasing symmetrical appearance to the fields, when they are in a state of vegetation.

Among the carriages employed in this country, is a wheelbarrow, singularly constructed, and employed alike for the conveyance of persons and goods:

'According as it is more or less heavily loaded, it is directed by one or two persons, the one dragging it after him, while the other pushes it forward by the shafts. The wheel, which is very large in proportion to the barrow, is placed in the centre of the part on which the load is laid; so that the weight bears upon the axle, and the barrow-men support no part of it, but serve merely to move it forward, and to keep it in equilibrium. The wheel is as it were cased up in a frame, made of laths, and covered over with a thin plank, four or five inches wide. On each side of the barrow is a projection, on which the goods are put, or which serves as a seat for passengers. A Chinese traveller sits on one side, and thus serves to counterbalance his baggage, which is placed on the other. If this baggage be heavier than himself, it is balanced equally on the two sides, and he seats himself on the board over the wheel, the barrow being purposely contrived to suit such occasions.'

As the rivers soon froze up, the embassy was obliged to proceed by land, and to be forwarded in palanquins carried by *Coulis* *, or labourers; who, from extreme fatigue, sometimes set the Dutch gentlemen down in the middle of the road, and refused to carry them any farther. They even behaved so disrespectfully to M. Van Braam, as to let him fall several times, and obliged him to proceed on foot (p. 155). When the second in the embassy was treated in this manner, it may be easily conceived what usage the inferior persons must have experienced. Indeed, we find that a Malay boy, in the ambas-

'* This name, which is borrowed from India, is applied to all sorts of labourers, but particularly to those who carry persons, merchandice, &c. an occupation which is considered as the lowest of all, because it is that of such individuals as can get nothing else to do. Almost all of them go with their head and feet naked.'

sador's service, became delirious, and died at Pekin, in consequence of the fatigue undergone in the voyage. Of the wretched and half-naked labourers, who carried both passengers and baggage, not fewer than eight are said to have died, during two very severe nights and days in December.

The capital of Kianghan, M. Van Braam informs us, ought properly to be called *Con-ding-fou*; though Europeans generally substitute for it the name of *Nan-king*, a word signifying only *the court of the south*, because the Chinese Emperors formerly resided in that city.

The laborious mountain-culture, which is perhaps nowhere carried to a higher * pitch than in China, is thus accurately described:

'The eye of an European is delighted at beholding the industrious application of the Chinese, who, rating difficulties at nothing, convert mountains into fertile fields, and change their inclined surface into level ground, by means of terraces of four or five feet elevation, which descend by steps from the top of the declivity to the bottom of the valley. But for their exertions, it is evident that those regions must remain for ever uncultivated, on account of the ravages committed by the floods during the heavy rains, which would not fail to carry both the soil and the seed deposited in it into the ravines below. The precautions of which I am speaking render such a mischief impossible by levelling every thing. Each terrace is besides secured with a parapet, and a little ditch to drain off the superfluous water. On the other hand, as elevated grounds are in their very nature subject to drought, the Chinese, to remedy this evil, judiciously place on the summits of the highest mountains ample reservoirs, in which the rain water is received and preserved. As soon as the drought begins to be felt, the reviving stream descends, and saves the corn, grass, and vegetables, from its pernicious effects. The aspect of a slope so disposed, when seen from a commanding situation, was highly agreeable, although the ground was now entirely stripped and naked. How delightful must it be when wheat embellishes the surface, and covers it with a verdant carpet.'

Throughout China, numerous triumphal or honorary arches, built either of wood or stone, perpetuate the memory of persons of both sexes, whose virtues have deserved celebration and the homage of the public. The Emperor takes care to preserve whatever may transmit to posterity an idea of the glory of those celebrated persons; while inscriptions indicate their names, and the noble actions by which they gained renown. Sir G. Staunton (vol. ii. p. 289) says that they are

* The reader, it is hoped, will not suppose that by the use of this word we are humbly disposed to amuse him, or ourselves, with a *pun*.

called by the Chinese *Pai-loo*, and mistranslated by 'triumphal arches,' as nothing like an arch is to be seen in any part of it; the whole being built of wood, and consisting of three handsome gateways, of which the middle is the highest and largest. With respect to the design of them, M. Van Braam is more explicit and satisfactory than Sir George:—he thus particularizes the classes of men in favour of whom this usage has been adopted:

'1. Persons who have lived a century; the Chinese thinking, that without a sober and virtuous life it is impossible to attain so great an age. 2. Children who have given proofs of great filial affection. 3. Women remarkable for their chastity. The finest of the triumphal arches we saw this day, which is composed of a very hard kind of white marble called *Samchit*, was erected in honour of three sisters. According to the Chinese custom they had been betrothed from their infancy; but their three intended husbands died before they were marriageable. In vain did other men desire their company through life; faithful to their first engagements, they considered them as binding till their death, after which this mark of honour was awarded them. 4. The Mandarins who have governed in the district subject to their authority with fidelity and justice, so as to gain the love and esteem of the people. 5. And lastly, the persons who have distinguished themselves by rendering signal services to the state; or who have made or invented any thing conducive to the advantage of the public.'

Many learned Chinese have, from time immemorial, written a great number of treatises concerning agriculture, &c. of which Grammont, a French missionary at Pekin, spoke to M. Van Braam in high terms of praise. The missionary even deems them worthy of translation into the European languages; particularly as many things occur in them which are entirely unknown among us.

The Chinese custom of applying sails to land-carriages, though mentioned by Milton, and by several travellers, has often been questioned. M. Van Braam, however, places it beyond all doubt.

'How great was my surprise (he says) when I this day saw a whole fleet of wheel-barrows, all of the same size. I have good reason to call them a fleet, for they were all under sail; having a little mast very neatly inserted in a hole or step cut in the forepart of the barrow. To this mast is attached a sail made of matting, or more commonly of canvas, five or six feet high, and three or four wide, with reefs, yards, and braces like those of the Chinese boats. The braces lead to the shafts of the barrow, and by means of them the conductor trims his sail.

'It was easy to perceive by this apparatus, that it was not a mere momentary matter, but an additional contrivance in the carriage, and meant

meant to give relief to the barrow-men when the wind is fair; for, otherwise, considering the money it must cost, and the trouble of carrying it, it would be but a very ridiculous whim.'

Sir G. Staunton (vol. ii. p. 243) has also mentioned these sailing barrows, though the English embassy do not appear to have been gratified with a sight of them.

An extraordinary instance of subordination among the Mandarins is noticed at p. 167. The second conductor of the embassy was so much offended at the governor of a city, where they were delayed for some hours, that he thought proper *to pay him publicly with a few cuffs*; which foreboded that he would lose his place into the bargain.

Though the embassy looked forwards to Pekin for better accommodations than they experienced in their route to the capital, they had the mortification, on their arrival, of finding them worse. They were carried on the first day to a public house, generally frequented by *carmen*. This disappointment, however, they bore with patience on seeing the Mandarins placed in the same situation with themselves; though M. Van Braam cannot conceal the vexation which he felt. 'Thus,' he exclaims, 'on our arrival at the celebrated residence of the Emperor, were we lodged *in a kind of stable!* who could have expected such an adventure?'—Did this mode of behaving to foreigners of distinction prove, what the Chinese so frequently asserted, and what is repeatedly mentioned by M. Van Braam, (*e. g.* p. 185,) that the Dutch embassy was better liked and better treated in China, than the English had been?

Of the Chinese metropolis, the author gives the following description:

'In general, the houses in the city have a respectability of appearance of which those in the suburbs cannot boast, and there are even shops of which the fronts are decorated with carvings or sculpture in wood or stone, and gilt or varnished from top to bottom. The street even in the parts that were not paved, was covered with tents, under which the shopkeepers displayed all that the loom can produce, as well as provisions and goods of every other kind, which gave it, to us, exactly the appearance of a fair; and the great concourse of people, assembled in European towns on such occasions, is an additional trait of resemblance. This spectacle, the noise of carriages, horses, mules, and dromedaries; the assemblage of so many men and animals; the appearance of new dresses, manners, and faces; every thing, in short, put in its claim upon my curiosity, and captivated my attention.'

The embassy was one day addressed by the old Emperor's seventeenth son, then about thirty years of age, and of a pleasing countenance; and the same prince who was declared

Emperor of China on the 8th of February 1796, by his father Kien-Long.

Among the amusements at court, the feats of activity exhibited in the presence of the Emperor and of the Dutch embassy are remarkable:

'A man, lying down on his back, held up his legs vertically in the air. Upon the sole of his feet was next placed a ladder of six long steps, with a flat board at the bottom. A child of seven or eight years of age then climbed up the steps, and sitting upon the upper one, played a number of monkey-tricks, while the man kept turning the ladder first one way and then another. The child afterwards descended and ascended, twisting his body in such a way between the steps, that the different parts of it were alternately on the opposite sides of the ladder. This diversion lasted at least a quarter of an hour.

'When the exhibition of the ladder was over, two men brought an enormous earthen vessel, which must certainly have weighed more than a hundred and twenty-five pounds, and which they laid sideways upon the feet of the strong man, who turned it round and round and over and over with astonishing rapidity. The child was then put into the vessel at the moment the mouth of it was turned from the Emperor, towards whom it was immediately brought round again by the man. The boy then made signs of respect, and climbing over the edge, got upon the top of the vessel, seated himself there, and assumed a variety of attitudes, letting himself hang down over the edge, by which he held with his hands, and enlivening the performance by a thousand playful tricks.'

M. Van Braam's remarks concerning the Emperor Kien-Long are somewhat different from the description given in the account of the British embassy:—he says:

'His external appearance exhibits all the marks of old age, particularly his eyes. They are watery, and so weak, that it is with difficulty he raises his eyelids, which hang down in folds, especially that of the left eye. He is, in consequence, obliged, whenever he wishes to look at any thing that is not very close to him, to raise his head and even to throw it a little back. His cheeks are shrivelled and pendant. His beard, which is short, is very grey. These are the only particulars I can give of this monarch's person, never having been very near to him, but when he was sitting.—His dress consists of clothes lined with fur, which appeared to me to be that of the sea-otter; and round his cap, which is sometimes ornamented with a large pearl, was a border of the same kind. In this season, as well as in all others, the Emperor's dress is very plain, although he is served and honoured like a god. He does not, indeed, enjoy the tenth part of the pleasure and amusements, which are at the command of the meanest prince in Europe. His recreations consist of tricks and buffooneries, with which it would be difficult to divert the common people of an European country at a fair; but as he is unacquainted with more refined enjoyments, and unable to form an idea

of

of them, he cannot be said to suffer any privation. It is not then surprising that the diversions of children should be an amusement to the Emperor in his old age.'

The author seems to discredit the reputed number of Chinese troops, which were stated to him by a person who had belonged to the English embassy, to be 1,800,000. In the appendix to Sir G. Staunton's account, Number IV. we meet with the same statement. It is impossible for us to divine whether or not the Chinese army amounts to a number which, indeed, staggers belief: but Sir G. S. (vol. iii. p. 392-93.) mentions the above calculation as resting on the testimony of a *distinguished military officer;* and he adduces some circumstances which render it less incredible: yet he candidly adds: "if the number mentioned really do exist, a great proportion of them must be in Tartary, or on some service distant from the route of the embassy." We here see nothing like credulity or wilful exaggeration; and the apparent *tendency* of M. Van Braam's observation * will most probably be defeated.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Letters and Correspondence, Public and Private, of the Right Hon. Henry St. John, Lord Visc. Bolingbroke,* during the Time he was Secretary of State to Queen Anne: with State Papers, explanatory Notes, and a Translation of the Foreign Letters, &c. By Gilbert Parke, Wadh. Coll. Oxon. Chaplain to his R. H. the Prince of Wales. 8vo. Four large Vols. 1l. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

When we consider the importance of the treaty of *Utrecht* to the interests of this country, and the splendid abilities of those men who were employed in promoting or in resisting its ratification;—calling to our recollection the names of Marlborough and Bolingbroke, who were both engaged, though on different sides and with different views, in this calamitous and disgraceful transaction, which originated in the machinations and dissensions of two of the Queen's waiting-women;—we receive with pleasure, and we read with avidity, every production which promises to throw new light on the events of that period.

When Mr. St. John made his first public appearance, the Whig and Tory parties were strongly opposed to each other, and their interests were nearly balanced. Though he had been educated among the Dissenters, and had imbibed such political sentiments as should have attached him to the cause of freedom, he united himself with Harley, and was in 1704 ap-

* 'Perhaps it is requisite to go to Tartary to see them.' p. 264.

pointed

pointed Secretary at War, and of the marines.—While he retained this appointment, he manifested himself so far uninfluenced by petty motives of jealousy, that he supplied the Duke of Marlborough, who might be considered as the head of the opposite party, with all the necessaries for carrying on the war with vigour; and several of the most glorious and remarkable events of the war (viz. the battles of Blenheim and Ramillies, &c.) happened during his administration *. In the year 1708, he experienced a change of fortune; and on the election of a new parliament, he was not returned. This period he dedicated to the severest study, and he declared that he considered it as the most serviceable of his whole life. Even in his youth, and when his thoughts and his time appeared to be devoted to extravagant and disgraceful pleasures, he had his lucid intervals, and observed that "The love of study and desire of knowlege were what I felt all my life; and though my genius, unlike the demon of Socrates, whispered so softly, that very often I heard him not in the hurry of those passions with which I was transported, yet some calmer hours there were, and in them I hearkened to him."

With such feelings in the midst of his dissipation, it is not wonderful that, when arrived at a maturer age, and having in some degree realized his ambitious prospects, (though still with much to hope,) he should devote himself to incessant study.—The fruits of that application soon became apparent, and in the year 1710 he was appointed Secretary of State. At this time, the correspondence contained in the present work commenced;—and here we cannot but lament that the period, to which these volumes are confined, seems to have precluded the insertion of some letters addressed by Lord Bolingbroke to Sir William Wyndham, now in the possession of the Earl of Egremont, with a perusal of which we were some time since favoured and much gratified.

We shall transcribe, for the satisfaction of our readers, the account given by the editor of the manner in which the letters here printed came into his possession, [Vol. I. p. vii, and p. x.]

'When Bolingbroke was dismissed from his office, and fled to France, his Under-secretary, Thomas Hare, Esq. who is often mentioned in his Lordship's Letters, secured these Papers. At that time, Mr. Hare resided in London, and being a younger brother, was possessed of a very small fortune, beside the place of Chief Clerk, Sole Examiner and Register in Chancery, and Clerk of the

* He was always a sincere admirer of that great General, and on every occasion avowed his opinion of his exalted merits, and boasted of being instrumental in giving effect and lustre to those triumphs, by which his own power was eventually overthrown.

Crown

Crown and Peace in Barbadoes, which offices he held; but whether for life, or during pleasure, is not quite certain; one copy of the appointment, in the hands of the Editor, specifying for life, the other during pleasure; the latter is dated June 18, 1714, the former has no date, and, perhaps, was never executed, as the Queen died on the 1st of August following, and it was not probable that the friend of the proscribed Secretary would experience any favour from the succeeding administration. Independent of this place, whatever fortune he possessed was lost in the general calamity originating in the South-Sea Scheme.

'His elder brother dying unmarried, he, in 1732, succeeded to the noble estate and seat of his family at Stow-Hall, in Norfolk, and to the Baronetage granted to Sir Ralph Hare, in 1641. Thither he then retired, and the Bolingbroke manuscripts were deposited in the Evidence-house belonging to the estate, where they remained; and, from the time of his death, in 1760, were little known or noticed.

'To the present worthy possessor of the estate, Thomas Hare, Esq. and the descendant of the Under-secretary, the Editor, then residing in the neighbourhood of Stow, expressed his wishes to peruse the Papers, and upon stating his inclination to publish them, Mr. Hare, in the most liberal and polite manner, sent him the whole of the Bolingbroke Papers in his possession.'—

'Upon an examination of the Manuscripts, many appeared to be autographs, and the remainder in the hand-writing of Sir Thomas Hare, or of his colleagues in office. They consisted of four volumes of Letters, and very many detached Papers. The first volume contained the Public Dispatches to the Earl of Strafford; the second, the Public and Private Letters to the Marquis de Torcy, with those to and from Mr. Prior; the other two, his Public and Private Letters to Correspondents in general. The detached Papers consisted of the Letters from the Marquis de Torcy, and the entire Correspondence with the Duke of Shrewsbury, together with Memorials, &c.

'The Editor has endeavoured to arrange all these in a regular series, and to supply such explanatory Notes as seemed necessary to render characters and occurences more familiar to the Reader. A Translation of the Foreign Letters was not intended, when the book was ready for the press, from a fear of swelling the work to an inordinate size; but, at the suggestion of a friend, whose judgment the Editor has ever respected, he was induced to alter his plan; and, by printing the work in a smaller letter than that used in the other volumes of Bolingbroke, and by extending the page of letter-press, to give room at the end of each volume for the Translation of the preceding Letters.

'Extracts from the *public* Letters of the Secretary appeared in the Report of the Secret Committee of the House of Commons in 1715, which formed the ground-work of the impeachment of Oxford, Bolingbroke, Strafford, and Ormond. But these seem to be of no farther use than as they served the purpose of one party in effecting the overthrow of another; in their mutilated state they are of little service

service to the history of our country, and remain only to record the violence and the prejudice of faction.

'The late Earl of Hardwicke inserted in his State Papers four of the *official* Letters of Lord Bolingbroke and Mr. Prior: these, so far as the Editor has been able to learn, are all the Papers in the following Collection that have hitherto appeared in print.

'The present Publication consists not only of official, but of private Letters of the Secretary; the general business of that Administration, and his particular sentiments on that business; the orders and instructions of the Minister, and the confidential communication of the motives for them. In a word, it seems to record the political occurrences and history of Great Britain, from the time Bolingbroke came into office until his supercession by the Regents; and the reader is not to learn the importance of that period.'

There can be little doubt that at this period Mr. St. John's friendship for Harley was warm and sincere: but, unhappily for themselves, and unluckily for their party, this intimacy soon declined, and coldness and suspicion assumed its place. In a letter addressed to the Earl of Orrery so early as May 1711, we observe the following passage, from which it is evident that the writer was dissatisfied with his colleague's reserve: [Vol. I. p. 216.]

'Do you not remember, my Lord, a certain time last summer, when for several weeks I avoided writing to you, although I knew how uneasy the pangs of expectation were to the Duke of Argyle and yourself, in that crisis of domestic affairs? We are now in a state not very unlike to that which we were then in. Mr. Harley, since his recovery, has not appeared at the Council, or at the Treasury at all, and very seldom in the House of Commons. We, who are reputed to be in his intimacy, have few opportunities of seeing him, and none of talking freely with him. As he is the only true channel through which the Queen's pleasure is conveyed; so there is, and must be a perfect stagnation till he is pleased to open himself, and set the water flowing.'

In another letter to this Nobleman, written in the same year, he speaks of Harley with more kindness, but still alludes to his want of openness and candour. Here also he gives an account of a club just then established: [Vol. I. p. 244.]

'Our friend, Mr. Harley, is now Earl of Oxford, and High Treasurer.

'This great advancement is, what the labour he has gone through, the danger he has run, and the services he has performed, seem to deserve. But he stands on slippery ground, and envy is always near the great, to fling up their heels on the least trip which they make. The companions of his evil fortune are most likely to be the supporters of his good; and I dare say he makes this a maxim to himself; for though he often wants that grace and openness which engages

gages the affection, yet I must own, I never knew that he wanted either the constancy or the friendship which engages the esteem.

'The Peerage * which you expect, will be declared; and you will have a companion, whom I am confident you cannot but like, my Lord Keeper Harcourt.

'Many changes have been made at the rising of the parliament, which was this day prorogued to the 10th of July; and although they are such as ought to satisfy our friends, yet the number of the discontented must always exceed that of the contented, as the number of pretenders does that of employments. I confess to you, my Lord, that it made me melancholy to observe the eagerness with which places were solicited for; and though interest has at all times been the principal spring of action, yet I never saw men so openly claim their hire, or offer themselves to sale. You see the effects of frequent parliaments, and of long wars, of departing from our old constitution, and from our true interest.

'I must, before I send this letter, give your Lordship an account of a club which I am forming; and which, as light as the design may seem to be, I believe will prove of real service †. We shall begin to meet in a small number, and that will be composed of some who have wit and learning to recommend them; of others who, from their own situations, or from their relations, have power and influence, and of others who, from accidental reasons, may properly be taken in. The first regulation proposed, and that which must be inviolably kept, is decency. None of the extravagance of the kit-cat ‡, none of the drunkenness of the beef-steak is to be endured. The improvement of friendship, and the encouragement of letters, are to be the two great ends of our society. A number of valuable people will be kept in the same mind, and others will be made converts to their opinions.

'Mr. Fenton, and those who, like him, have genius, will have a corporation of patrons to protect and advance them in the world. The folly of our party will be ridiculed and checked; the opposition of another will be better resisted; a multitude of other good uses will follow, which I am sure do not escape you; and I hope in the winter to ballot for the honour of your company amongst us.

'I am ever, my dear Lord, &c.'

'* Baron Boyle, of Marston, in the county of Somerset.'

'† The members were, Earl of Arran, Lord Harley, Duke of Ormond, Swift, Sir Robert Raymond, Arbuthnot, Duke of Shrewsbury, Lord Duplin, Sir William Wyndham, George Granville, Masham, Earl of Jersey, Bathurst, Orrery, Colonel Hill, Colonel Desney, Bolingbroke, Duke of Beaufort, Prior, Dr. Friend, &c. Their meetings were first at their several houses, but afterwards they hired a room near St. James's.'

'‡ This kit-cat was instituted in 1699. Congreve, Prior, Sir John Vanburgh, the Earl of Orrery, and Lord Somers were members.'

In a letter addressed to Prior, in 1713, he does not conceal his disgust at the Treasurer's reluctance to oblige him: [Vol. IV. p. 204.]

'I cannot conclude this letter, without desiring you to try at a matter which I have very much at heart, and which I would have writ to the Duke of Shrewsbury upon, had I not apprehended that he might take it ill, if I should apply to him upon a supposition of what he does not own. In a word, we imagine he goes to Ireland; in that case might not Mr. Hare be secretary there? Addison went from the office at Whitehall to that post. Mr. Hare has served so very well, that whatever becomes of me, I should be under the last concern if he was not provided for. My Lord Treasurer's provisions come too slow, and are so uncertain, that I expect little from him. I have solicited for an uncle of my wife's, these three years; all I pretended to was an employment of 200l. a-year, which has been vacant above half the time, and I have not succeeded. Judge you, whether I am likely to trouble my Lord for any other person. If you find that easy moment, which should be watched for in our applications to great men, use it for Mr. Hare's service.

'Adieu, dear Matt, in my friendship to you I can never alter.

'*Servetur ad imum qualis ab incepto processerit, & tibi constat*; compliments as you see good.

'Lord Treasurer is extremely ill; if he was well, I should know nothing of your destination. Once more, yours ever, BOLINGBROKE.

With such sensations respecting Lord Oxford, and with unlimited confidence in his own abilities, and possessing a superior influence over the mind of his sovereign, it is not wonderful that he should effect the overthrow of the Treasurer: but this rupture, however it might in some respects be flattering to the ambition of Bolingbroke, was fatal to his interests as well as to those of his former friend.

In the negotiations at *Utrecht* he experienced the assistance of Prior, whose abilities on similar occasions had before been tried, and whose authority in this instance was very laconic; consisting only of the following words, signed by the Queen.—"*Le Sieur Prior est pleinement instruit et autorisé de communiquer à la France nos demandes preliminaires, et de nous en rapporter la réponse.*"

The correspondence between these two eminent men, in a business so full of difficulty and hazard, and which eventually threatened the lives of both, is full of pleasantry and interest. Bolingbroke always lays aside his state when he addresses his friend, assuring him that his long scrawls are only from Harry to Matt, and not from the secretary to the minister; and Prior seems to feel himself on a perfect equality:—at the close of a letter, in which he states that he had a little departed

from the straight and narrow road of truth, he signs himself "*Animal peregrine missum ad mentiendum R. P. causâ.*"

It does not appear from these letters that the poet was satisfied either with his precise situation, or with his establishment at Paris. Though his services were so important at this treaty, as to exclude his name in the following reign from an act of grace, yet we find him frequently complaining, and desiring Bolingbroke to interfere in his favour. [Vol. IV. p. 73, and p. 541.]

'*From Mr. Prior.*

'My Lord, Paris, April 8th, 1713.

'The Duke of Shrewsbury sends your Lordship the state of our affairs in Spain, to which I hope our own in England will so far correspond, as to open soon to us the scenes of an honourable peace and a good Parliament: I hope I shall have my Lord Treasurer's orders, and your opinion, as to my own particular or public figure. These people, who you know are curious and impertinent enough upon such heads, begin to question me so closely, that I sometimes wish I knew how to turn the discourse: upon the whole, I am ashamed to trouble you, my dear Lord, any farther, and I will write of it more to Dartmouth. I have again interested all our friends, Monsieur de Torcy particularly, in behalf of poor Monsieur Calendrini; I hope I shall do him service; and, in every thing that can relate to you, approve myself most truly, &c. M. Prior.

'*To his Grace the Duke of Shrewsbury.*

(With Montaigne's Essays; inclosed in the above letter.)

'Dictate, O mighty Judge, what thou hast seen
Of cities and of courts, of books and men,
And deign to let thy servant hold the pen.

'Through ages thus I might presume to live,
And from the transcript of thy prose receive
What my own short-liv'd verse can never give.

'Thus should fair Britain, with a gracious smile,
Receive the work; the venerable isle,
For more than treaties made, should bless my toil.

'Nor longer hence the Gallic style preferr'd,
Wisdom in English idiom should be heard,
While Shrewsbury told the world where Montaigne err'd.

——Are they good?

'What think you of an oak, which is Britain; a trophy of arms at the bottom of it; a wreath of palm, hung on the tree; over the trophy—*Innumeris potior.*'—

'*From Mr. Prior* *.

'My Dear Lord and Friend,

Paris, 1st-12th May, 1714.

'Matthew had never so great occasion to write a word to Henry as now; it is noised here, that I am soon to return. The question

'* Private, by Mr. Barton.'

that

that I wish I could answer to the many that ask, and to our friend Colbert de Torcy (to whom I made your compliments in the manner you commanded) is, what is done for me, and to what I am recalled? It may look like a bagatelle, what is to become of a philosopher like me; but it is not such, what is to become of a person who had the honour to be chosen, and sent hither as intrusted, in the midst of a war, with what the Queen designed should make the peace; returning with the Lord Bolingbroke, one of the greatest men in England, and one of the finest heads in Europe (as they say here, if true or not, *n'importe*) having been left by him in the greatest character, (that of her Majesty's Plenipotentiary,) exercising that power conjointly with the Duke of Shrewsbury, and solely after his departure; having here received more distinguished honours than any Minister, except an Ambassador, ever did, and some which were never given to any, but who had that character; having had all the success that could be expected; having (God be thanked!) spared no pains; at a time when at home the peace is voted safe and honourable; at a time when the Earl of Oxford is Lord Treasurer, and Lord Bolingbroke first Secretary of State, this unfortunate person, I say, neglected, forgot, unnamed to any thing that may speak the Queen satisfied with his services, or his friends concerned as to his fortune.

'Monsieur de Torcy put me quite out of countenance, the other day, by a pity that wounded me deeper than ever did the cruelty of the late Lord Godolphin; he said he would write to Robin and Harry about me: God forbid, my Lord, that I should need any foreign intercession, or owe the least to any Frenchman living, besides decency of behaviour, and the returns of common civility. Some say I am to go to Baden, others that I am to be added to the Commissioners for settling the commerce; in all cases I am ready, but in the mean time, *dic aliquid de tribus capellis*: neither of these two are, I presume, honours or rewards, neither of them (let me say to my dear Lord Bolingbroke, and let him not be angry with me) are what Drift may aspire to, and what Mr. Whitworth, who was his fellow-clerk, has or may possess. I am far from desiring to lessen the great merit of the gentleman I named, for I heartily esteem and love him: but in this trade of ours, my Lord, in which you are the General, as in that of the soldiery, there is a certain right acquired by time and long service. You would do any thing for your Queen's service, but you would not be contented to descend, and be degraded to a charge no way proportioned to that of Secretary of State, any more than Mr. Ross, though he would charge a party with a halberd in his hand, would be content all his life after to be a serjeant; was my Lord Dartmouth from Secretary returned again to be Commissioner of trade; or from Secretary of War, would Frank Gwin think himself kindly used to be returned again to be Commissioner? In short, my Lord, you have put me above myself, and if I am to return to myself, I shall return to something very discontented and uneasy; I am sure, my Lord, you will make the best use you can of this hint for my good. If I am to have any thing, it will certainly be for her Majesty's service, and the credit of my

my friends in the Ministry, that it be done before I am recalled from hence, lest the world may think either that I have merited to be disgraced, or that ye dare not stand by me; if nothing is to be done, *fiat voluntas Dei.*

'I have writ to Lord Treasurer upon this subject, and having implored your kind intercession, I promise you, it is the last remonstrance of this kind, that I will ever make. Adieu, my Lord, all honour, health, and pleasure to you. Yours ever, MATT.

'P. S. Lady Jersy is just gone from me; we drank your health together in Usquebaugh, after our tea: we are the greatest friends alive. Once more adieu. There is no such thing as the books of Travels you mentioned, if there be, let friend Tilson send us a more particular account of them, for neither I nor Jacob Tonson can find them. Pray send Barton back to me, and I hope with some comfortable tidings.'

These volumes will be found particularly useful in detailing the progress of this important negotiation, and the circumstances which obstructed its completion: but we do not think that they bring to light any thing very essential, which was before unknown. The state of Lord Bolingbroke's mind, harassed by disappointment, and disconcerted by opposition, frequently discovers itself;—in a letter to Mr. Watkins, he says, [Vol. II. p. 159.]

'And now, good Judge, let me ask you whether you believe that my situation in the world is perfectly as I could wish it; whether you imagine that I meet with no shock from my superiors, no perverseness from my equals, no impertinence from my inferiors? If you fancy me, or any one else, in such a state of bliss, you are wide from the mark.

'I desire you to do for a while, no more than what I have done, ever since I trod the stage of public business; bear with the hardness of the temper you complain of, and the prejudice will soon decay, or if it does not, the true reason of your leaving the post which you are in, will be manifest to the world, and no false, no malicious turn can be then given to your removal.

'I use this liberty, because I persuade myself you are convinced of the true value which I have for your merit, and that you will believe I judge in your case as I should do in my own.

'We have struggled this winter through inconceivable difficulties, in opposition to a powerful faction at home, to all our allies, and even the successor himself abroad; and, I may say, we have combated an habit of thinking falsely, which men have been used to for twenty years.

'If we finish our work, as I do not fear but we shall, the success must be ascribed to the unshaken firmness of the Queen's servants, and to the loyalty of the church interest, which even ill usage could not alienate.'

In illustration of this point, we shall transcribe the letter to the Earl of Peterborough, and with it we shall close our extracts: [Vol. II. p. 302.]

'*To the Earl of Peterborough.*

'My Lord, Whitehall, May 2d, 1712.

'Several of your Lordship's letters are come, almost at the same time, to my hands, some of them are without any date, the freshest is of the 23d last month, from Venice.

'It would be a real and a very great mortification to me, if I imagined your Lordship had entertained the least doubt of that friendship which I profess to have for you; my habits at Court have neither taught me to show what I do not feel, nor to hide what I do; and my love and my hate are so far from not appearing in my words and actions, that they generally sit in my very face.

'As I endeavour to do this justice to my own heart, so, my Lord, you must give me leave to do the same to those friends whom you left behind you: and who, I dare answer for them, have the same esteem for your merit, the same affection for your person, and the same zeal for your service, which they ever had. But, my Lord, in all your experience, I may venture to affirm, you never passed through such a scene of confusion and difficulty, as this winter has afforded us; and though we have kept one point of view steadily in sight, and worked towards it, yet have been forced to shift our course, and try different measures, almost every day.

'Faction can invent nothing more ruinous to the public, the rage of woman nothing more barbarous towards particular men, than some of the intrigues which have been lately carried on. At the same time, a nice negociation has been on foot, wherein not Britain alone, but all Europe, not the present age alone, but posterity are deeply concerned; and this with an enemy, who wants no inclination to take advantages, nor skill to manage them.

'To these causes, and to others of a near resemblance to these, be pleased, my Lord, to attribute the state of darkness and uncertainty, which you complain you have been left in. The Queen has, from week to week, expected the moment when her affairs, and the great business now in agitation, would require the employing you in a post worthy of your talents, and, I believe, agreeable to your wishes. That moment is not very far off, and I take it for granted, that the Earl of Dartmouth has already hinted to your Lordship, what you are to expect.

'The Duke of Savoy will find the Queen is the best friend he and his family have, and therefore, that more confidence in her, and less uneasiness of temper, would have become his character better.

'The alarm which we had concerning the Prince Electoral *, made a great impression upon her Majesty, and under these first terrors, the resolution was taken of giving your Lordship a commission, which, I perceive, you do not very much relish. Mackenzie was pitched upon by the Electoress Dowager, and trusted with her letters, and with those of the Protestant ministers; so that if he had been guilty of any indiscretion, we should not be answerable for it; but, I hope, before this time, your Lordship has received another account of the adventure with his servant.

'* Of Saxony, renouncing Protestantism.'

'As

'As to my own part, my Lord, in Parliament, or out of it, as I will always deserve your friendship, so I flatter myself, I shall always have it. But, my Lord, as to my conduct in the negociation for a peace, I shall want no justification. I have, it is true, acted as boldly in the promoting that good work, as your Lordship used to do, where you thought the intereſt of your country at stake; and I tell you, without any Gasconade, that I had rather be banished for my whole life, because I have helped to make the peace, than be raised to the highest honours, for having contributed to obstruct it*; however, God be praised! we run no risque of this kind; the eyes of mankind are opened, and they begin to see the falsehood of that system of politics, on which we have acted so many years together.

'I inclose this letter to Mr. Cole, who will convey it to your Lordship, wherever you may happen to be. No man loves you better, or honours you more than Yours, &c.'

Whatever opinion we may entertain of the motives in which the treaty of Utrecht originated, or of the consequences to this country of that negotiation, it is impossible not to admire the talents and perseverance of him by whom it was planned, conducted, and completed. When we review the many and various difficulties which Bolingbroke had to encounter, we reflect with astonishment on the patience, the spirit, and the address with which he overcame all opposition, and at length accomplished his favourite object.

We cannot dismiss this article without recommending the work to those readers, who wish to have a circumstantial account of a transaction which was so sedulously forwarded by one party, and so uniformly opposed by the other; and which, as it was the cause of aggrandizement to the Whigs, nearly proved fatal to the lives of its supporters.

The letters are chiefly addressed to the Duke of Shrewsbury and the Earl of Strafford, formerly Lord Raby.

ART. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Part II. for* 1798.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 128.]

ANATOMICAL PAPERS.

An Account of the Orifice of the Retina of the Human Eye, discovered by Professor Soemmering. *To which are added, Proofs*

'* This passage is remarkable, on account of the event verifying the assertion. Upon the return of the Whig administration, at the accession of George I. Bolingbroke was impeached for helping to make the peace, and actually went into a voluntary exile.'

of this Appearance being extended to the Eyes of other Animals. *By* Everard Home, *Esq. F. R. S.*

THE following account of this new discovery in the anatomy of the human eye was communicated by M. Maunoir, an eminent surgeon at Geneva, in a letter to Mr Home:

"Professor Soemmering was dissecting; in the bottom of a vessel filled with a transparent liquid, the eyes of a young man who had been drowned, and was struck on seeing, near the insertion of the optic nerve on the retina, a yellow round spot, and a small hole in the middle, through which he could see the dark *choroides*, (looking at the surface of the retina which covers the vitreous humour.)

"He dissected other human eyes; and constantly, when the dissection was carefully made, found the hole of the retina seemingly at the posterior end of the visual radius, nearly two lines on the temporal side of the optic nerve, and the hole surrounded by the yellow zone, of above three lines in diameter. The hole of the retina is not directly seen, being covered with a fold of the retina itself. An anatomist of Paris dissected many eyes of quadrupeds and birds, and found the yellow spot and hole in *no* animal but the human kind."

The best way of seeing the spot, the *ruga* which conceals it, and the yellow zone, is, according to M. Maunoir,

"To take off the half posterior part of the sclerotica, then the correspondent part of the choroid; both must be cut round the insertion of the optic nerve. The retina is to remain bare and untouched, sustaining alone the vitreous humour; then you may see the round spot, which reaches the optic nerve, and a fold of the retina, marking a diameter of the spot. Then, if you press the ball a little with your finger, so as to push the vitreous humour rather near the bottom of the eye, the *ruga* is unfolded, and you will see the hole perfectly round, of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a line in diameter, and its edges very thin. All this can be seen in the inside of the eye, but not so perfectly; and, in that case, you must make your observations in water."

Mr. Home's mode of examining the retina was

'By removing the transparent cornea; then taking away the iris, and wounding the capsule of the crystalline lens, so as to disengage the lens, without removing that part of the capsule which adheres to the vitreous humour; by which means, the retina remained undisturbed, and could be accurately examined, when a strong light was thrown into the eye. The aperture in the retina, surrounded by a zone with a radiated appearance, was distinctly seen, on the temporal side of the insertion of the optic nerve, and about $\frac{1}{7}$ of an inch distant from it, apparently a little below the posterior end of the visual radius. The aperture itself, in this view, was very small.'

Mr. H. at first thought that a fresh eye was necessary for demonstrating this aperture: but he has since found that it is more readily seen in an eye two days after death; 'the zone, which is the most conspicuous part, being of a lighter colour the first

first day, than it is upon the second.' He has succeeded in preserving the posterior part of the eye in spirits, without destroying the appearance of the aperture.

In Dr. Duncan's Annals of Medicine for the year 1797, is an account of a publication concerning this singular appearance, by Professor Reil, intitled, *The plait, the yellow spot, and the transparent portion of the retina of the eye;* and Mr. H. informs us that the Professor's mode of dissecting the eye, in order to shew the aperture and plait, is exactly similar to that mentioned in M. Maunoir's letter.

Having ascertained the appearance of the aperture above described in the human eye, Mr. Home determined to investigate it in the eyes of other animals; and he found that it is not peculiar to the retina of the human eye. Its situation in man and in the monkey (the latter was the animal in which he first explored it) is the same. In them it is placed at some distance from the optic nerve: but in some other animals, as in the bullock and sheep, its situation is close to that nerve, and it puts on the appearance of a tube, instead of an orifice.

Mr. H. observes that the yellow zone, found in the human eye and in that of the monkey, does not exist in any other animal which he has had an opportunity of examining. As to the use of this aperture in the eye, he conjectures that it is the orifice of a lymphatic vessel, intended to carry off the vitiated parts of the vitreous humour and crystalline lens; and he offers several reasons in support of this opinion.—The several appearances described in this paper, as they were observed in the human eye and in those of the monkey, bullock, and sheep, are exhibited by figures.

A Description of a very unusual Formation of the Human Heart. By Mr. James Wilson, *Surgeon.*

The heart described in this paper consisted of a single auricle and ventricle, each of which was of a large size. A large arterial trunk arose from the ventricle, and ascended into the thorax, between the pleuræ, immediately behind the thymus gland. This soon divided into two large branches, one of which continued to ascend, constituting the aorta; which, from the place where it began to form the usual arch, was in no respect different from the aorta of any other infant, except that no bronchial artery was sent to the lungs from it or any of its ramifications. The other branch passed backward, and proved, on examination, to be the pulmonary artery; which divided into two branches, one going to the lungs of the left, the other to the lungs of the right side. The circumference of the aorta, where it separated from the original trunk, was found to mea-

sure 1¼ inch; and that of the pulmonary artery fifteen-sixteenths of an inch.

For other particulars, and corresponding remarks, we must refer to the author's account. He has illustrated the several circumstances in which this infant differed from others by suitable figures.—It had arrived at its full time, and lived seven days after its birth.

Account of a Tumour found in the Substance of the Human Placenta. By John Clarke, *M. D.*

It appears, by this account, that very considerable deviations from the ordinary structure of the placenta may exist, and be perfectly compatible with the life and health of the fœtus. The tumour here described was situated behind the chorion, and lay imbedded in the fœtal portion of the placenta. Its general form was oval, it was about 4½ inches long, 3 inches broad, and about 3 inches thick. Its weight was upwards of 7 ounces; its shape resembled that of a human kidney; its surface was convex, with slight indentations; and it was inclosed in a firm capsule, the substance of which contained large vessels. The blood-vessels, branching off from the funis to supply the tumour, went partly to one side and partly to the other; ramifying in their progress, till, meeting at the convex edge of the tumour, they anastomosed very freely. From the large trunks on the surface, small branches were given off, which penetrated into the substance, and supplied the whole tumour with blood. Its consistence, on cutting it, was found to be uniform, firm, and fleshy. Some parts appeared to be highly vascular, while others were white and uninjected.

The ingenious author inclines to think that the existence of such a tumour is not to be considered as a disease, because no part of it exhibited any appearance of a morbid tendency. He observes that

'The whole structure seemed to consist of a regularly organized matter throughout, supplied with vessels exclusively belonging to itself, and not passing to it from the surrounding parts, as is generally the case in diseased masses.'—'All the common and known functions of the placenta were performed, notwithstanding the existence of this substance; and the child had been as well nourished, and the benefits arising from the application of vital air or oxygen to its blood just as well supplied, as if the tumour had not existed.'

Dr. C. is disposed to consider 'this fleshy substance, as a solitary instance of a formative property in the vessels of the placenta, which they have not been hitherto generally known to possess.' The extraordinary quantity of liquor amnii, discharged previously to the birth of the child, and which amounted

to two gallons, is a circumstance in this case that is worthy of notice. What connection subsisted between this liquor and the tumour, and how such a quantity of secreted fluid was conveyed from the tumour into the general cavity of the ovum, the author professes himself unable to explain.

CHEMISTRY *and* NATURAL HISTORY.

An Inquiry concerning the Chemical Properties that have been attributed to Light. By Benjamin *Count of* Rumford, *F. R. S. M. R. I. A.*

The indefatigable author of this paper, having, in an Essay on the Propagation of Heat in Fluids, (see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxvii. p. 168.) expressed a doubt concerning the existence of those chemical properties, which have been ascribed to light; and having also mentioned his reasons for concluding that all the visible changes, produced in bodies by exposure to the action of the sun's rays, are effected merely by the heat which is generated or excited by the light which they absorb, and not by any chemical combination of the matter of light with such bodies; has since directed particular attention to this subject. In consequence, he here presents the Society with an account of those experiments which he has made with a view of investigating and determining how far his opinion was well founded. He modestly acknowleges that he has not been so successful as he could have wished: but none who are acquainted with his sagacity and assiduity, in prosecuting researches of this kind, will think any apology necessary on his part for submitting the result of his reflections and experiments to the public inspection.

Having found, on a former occasion, that gold or silver might be melted by the heat which exists in the air, at the distance of more than an inch above the point of the flame of a wax-candle, the Count was curious to know what effect this heat would produce on the oxyds of these metals. For this purpose, he evaporated to dryness a solution of fine gold in *aqua regia*, and dissolved the residuum in distilled water, till the solution became disposed to crystallize; and wetting the middle of a piece of white taffeta ribband in the solution, he held it horizontally over the clear bright flame of a wax-candle, at the distance of 1½ inch above the point of the flame. The part of the ribband, which was directly over the flame, almost immediately emitted steam in dense clouds; and, in about ten seconds, a circular spot of a fine purple colour, approaching to crimson, appeared in the middle of it, and rapidly spred from its first size of about three-fourths of an inch in diameter, to the

extent of nearly an inch. By moving the ribband, all the parts of it which had been wetted, and which were exposed to the hot vapours of the candle, were tinged with the same beautiful purple colour. This colour, which was uncommonly brilliant, penetrated the ribband, and the stain was perfectly indelible. Though there was no appearance of gilding on the ribband, and no traces of revived gold could be discerned, it seemed to be covered with a thin coating of the most beautiful purple enamel, which, in the sun, had a degree of brilliancy that was sometimes quite dazzling. The moistened part of the ribband was afterward dried in a dark closet, and then exposed to the flame of the candle; when the same effect was produced.—The experiment was varied in several ways with paper, fine linen, and fine cotton cloths; and a similar tinge was produced, whatever the substance was which imbibed the aqueous solution of the metallic oxyd. The same substances, tinged with a similar solution of nitrate of silver, and treated in the like manner, exhibited a very dark orange colour, or rather a yellowish brown.

In order to determine whether the purple tinge in the first instance was occasioned by the *heat* or by the *light* of the candle, the author made the following experiment, which he conceives to have been decisive. Having wetted a piece of ribband as before, he held it vertically by the side of the clear flame of a burning wax-candle, at the distance of less than half an inch from the flame. In this case, the ribband was dried, but without the least change of colour. When it was held for a few seconds within about $\frac{1}{8}$th of an inch from the flame, a tinge of a very beautiful crimson colour, in the form of a narrow vertical stripe, was produced. The heat, which existed at this distance, was sufficiently intense, as he found by trial, to melt very fine silver wire, flatted; such as is used in making silver-lace.

In another experiment, which was repeated several times, a piece of white ribband, wetted with the aqueous solution of the oxyd of gold, and thoroughly dried in the dark, was suspended in a phial of fine transparent glass; and the phial, being well stopped with a cork, was exposed to the strong light of a bright sun. After having been thus exposed for about half an hour, here and there some faint appearances of a change of colour were visible: but no disposition to take that deep purple hue, which the ribband had acquired in the former experiments, could be perceived. When, however, the same ribband was wetted with distilled water and exposed in its wet state to the sun's rays, it almost instantly began to change colour and soon became of a deep purple tint. With the most accurate examination,

mination, the author could not perceive the smallest particle of revived gold.—From this experiment, he concluded

'That light has little effect in changing the colour of metallic oxides, *as long as they are in a state of crystallization.* The heat which is generated by the absorption of the rays of light must necessarily, *at the moment of its generation* at least, exist in almost infinitely small spaces; and consequently, it is only in bodies that are *inconceivably small* that it can produce durable effects, in any degree indicative of its extreme intensity. Perhaps the particles of the oxide of gold, dissolved in water, are of such dimensions; and it is very remarkable, that the colours produced in some of my experiments on white ribbands, by means of an aqueous solution of the oxide of gold, are precisely the same as are produced from the oxide of that metal, by enamellers, in the intense heat of their furnaces. As the colouring substance is the same, and as the colours produced are the same, why should we not conclude that the effects are produced in both these cases by the same means, that is to say, by the agency of heat? or, in other words, and to be more explicit, by exposing the oxide in a certain temperature, at which it becomes disposed to vitrify, or to undergo a change in regard to the quantity of oxygen with which it is combined?'

The Count recites some other experiments, which evince the intensity of heat generated in all cases when light is absorbed, and the striking effects which, under certain circumstances, it is capable of producing. Concluding that gold might be revived *in the moist way*, by means of charcoal, from a solution of its oxyd in water,—provided that it were possible to communicate to the charcoal, and to the oxyd at the same time, a sufficient degree of heat,—he was desirous of ascertaining whether this might not be done by means of light. The mode pursued for determining this fact, and the success which attended his experiments, are particularly described:—but we must refer to the sequel of his paper, which, in this and in other respects, is curious and interesting.

On the Corundum Stone from Asia. *By the Right Hon.* Charles Greville, *F. R. S.*

The mineral substance described in this paper has been generally denominated, on account of its hardness, Adamantine Spar. Some specimens of it were transmitted from India, about the year 1767 or 1768, to an eminent engraver in stone at Edinburgh, together with information that it was the material used by the natives for polishing crystal, and all gems, except diamonds. In 1784, Mr. Greville obtained its native name, *Corundum*; and he soon discovered that Woodward had mentioned it in his catalogue of foreign fossils, published in 1719, and also in an additional catalogue published in 1725; together with the purposes to which it was applied in India. After several fruitless inquiries concerning this stone, Mr. G.

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in 1793 received a satisfactory account of it, contained in a letter to Sir Charles Oakley, then governor of Madras, from Mr. Garrow; who, after some difficulty in his researches, discovered the pits in which it is dug, at some distance from Permetty, and who was thus enabled minutely to describe the manner in which it is procured by the miners. They descend into a pit above 14 feet from the level of the ground, and with an iron crow force through the strata which cover it; and having broken to pieces the substance by which it is inclosed, they find the *Corundum* among the broken lumps. The sale of it, by those who are employed in procuring it, is confined solely to the glass-sellers; and they vend it through the whole country for the use of the stone-cutters, to whom it is essentially requisite. The specimens which the author obtained were of a greyish colour, with a shade of green. By the natives of Bengal it is called *Corone*, and they use it for polishing stones, and for all the purposes of emery. The specific gravity of a lump of this stone is 3,876. Mr. Greville describes several varieties which he obtained from India and from China, together with the strata in which they were found, and the circumstances which distinguish them from one another, and from other substances of a similar kind.

Under circumstances favourable to its crystallization, Corundum becomes glassy in its fracture, and of various colours. In crystals of it, Mr. G. has not only observed specks of a fine ruby colour, but he has fragments of crystals in texture and in every respect like the colourless Corundum, of a fine red colour; and he says that we obtain, from India, Corundum which may pass for rubies. The specific gravity of this substance has been found to vary from 3,876 to 4,166; and Mr. G. supposes it to be subject to a variation from 3,300 to 4,300. By an analysis of Mr. Klaproth, this stone consists of

Corundum earth	-	68 0
Siliceous earth	-	31 50
Iron and nichul	-	0 50
		100 0

By another analysis, the Corundum of the Peninsula of India consisted of

			The Corundum of China.
Argillaceous earth	89 50	-	84 0
Siliceous earth	5 50	-	6 50
Oxyd of iron	1 25	-	7 50
Loss	3 75	-	2 0
	100 0		100 0

Mr.

Mr. Greville thinks it probable that Corundum may be found in Great Britain, and on the Continent of Europe, as well as in Asia.—He terminates his account of this substance with some valuable observations on crystallography, and on the importance of combining intrinsic and extrinsic characters in the arrangement of those specimens which belong to this class of substances. He has also subjoined the translation of a paper by the Count de Bournon, intitled, *An Analytical Description of the Crystalline Forms of Corundum, from the East Indies and from China, with a Table of the Specific Gravity of the Corundum, Sapphire, Topaz, Ruby, and Diamond, on different Authorities.* The following general observation closes this last paper:

'The generic name Corundum I am in the habit of giving to those sorts which have a sparry or a granulated fracture. When Corundum has a vitreous cross fracture, I call it sapphire; and distinguish its varieties by their colours, white, red, blue, yellow, green, and by the accidental reflection of light from their laminæ: when in one direction, I call the Sapphire *chatryant*: when the reflection is compounded of rays which intersect each other, and appear to diverge from a common centre, I call them star-stones, as red, blue, or greyish star-stones, or star-sapphires.'

Account of a Substance found in a Clay-pit; and of the Effect of the Mere of Diss, upon various Substances immersed in it. By Mr. Benjamin Wiseman, *of Diss in Norfolk. With an Analysis of the Water of the said Mere, by* Charles Hatchett, *Esq. F. R. S.*

From the observations and analysis contained in this paper, it appears that martial pyrites is the only substance deposited on bodies immersed in the water of Diss-Mere; and that this water does not hold in solution any sulphur, and scarcely any iron.

'It has not, therefore, been concerned (says Mr. H.) in forming the pyrites; but it appears to me, that the pyritical matter is formed in the mud and filth of the Mere; for Mr. Wiseman says in his letter, that the Mere has received the silt of the streets for ages. Now, it is a well known fact, that sulphur is continually formed, or rather liberated, from putrefying animal and vegetable matter, in common sewers, public ditches, houses of office, &c. &c.; and this most probably has been the case at Diss. Moreover, if sulphur, thus formed, should meet with silver, copper, or iron, it will combine with them, unless the latter should be previously oxidated. The sulphur has, therefore, in the present case, met with iron, in, or approaching, the metallic state, and has formed pyrites.'—'Similar effects, on a larger scale, have been, and are now, daily produced in many places. The pyrites in coal-mines have, probably, in great measure thus originated. The pyritical wood also may have been thus produced; and, by the subsequent loss of sulphur, and oxidation of the iron, this pyritical wood appears to have formed the wood-like iron ore, which is found in

in many parts, and particularly in the mines in the river Jenisei, in Siberia.'

The last article in this volume is *A Catalogue of Sanscrita Manuscripts presented to the Royal Society by Sir* William *and Lady* Jones. *By* Charles Wilkins, *Esq. F. R. S.*

Mr. W. has not only recited the titles of the several manuscripts in this catalogue, but has annexed to each a particular account of its subject and contents.

ART. IV. *Poems*, by Joseph Fawcett. To which is added "Civilized War," before published under the Title of "The Art of War," with considerable Alterations: and "The Art of Poetry," according to the latest Improvements, with Additions. 8vo. pp. 277. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

THE poet usually represents himself as supremely blest in the favours of the Muse, but his happiness is generally as much a fiction as the subject of his verse. He becomes the inhabitant of an ideal world,

> 'And oft in Fancy's light-wheel'd chariot climbs,
> To spheres where woes nor errors e'er have been *.'

To descend hence to the low business, stupid cares, and vicious pursuits of men, is extreme degradation; and the sublime genius, "smit with the love of sacred song," turns away with disgust, courting solitude and despising riches. In proportion to his enthusiasm is the vividness of his imagination; and he raises on it splendid visions, hopes, and expectations, which time and experience invariably disappoint. Hence poetry becomes plaintive, and this happy art is employed to paint unhappiness. The gravity of elegy then seems most congenial with its feelings. The bright colours, in which its gay illusions are dressed, fade like the rich tints of summer clouds with the setting sun, and gloomy shadows obtrude to darken its horizon. It may be asked, then, is poetry a blessing or a curse? Is it a felicity or a misfortune, to have "the spirit finely touched to this fine issue?" In Arcadia, or in the Golden Age, there would be no difficulty in answering the question: but in this Iron Age, so much alloy is mixed with its sacred pleasures, that it may be doubted whether it be an enviable endowment. Prudence, however, being very rarely a poetic virtue, this consideration does not abate poetic ardor; and the poet, though he be often reminded *Mæonides nullas ipse reliquit opes*, will persevere to court the Muse. Yet, with his elegant, serious, mo-

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* See Mr. Fawcett's Elegy on Solitude.

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ralizing gravity, few are delighted. The Muse must be sprightly, witty, and gay, to have many readers.

Mr. Fawcett appears to be in the number of those who have pictured the world to their imaginations much brighter than they have found it; who have been disgusted by its follies, and shocked by its vices; who have no wish to conciliate the esteem either of the great or little vulgar, nor to seek fame in the approbation of the multitude. He writes for the few, and must probably be satisfied with the applause of the few. He is a plaintive, philosophic, and moral poet; and such an one will have reason enough to complain that "No smiles from Mammon bless the Muse's train." In point of vigour of imagination, splendor of imagery, and force of expression, he has not many superiors among modern poets; as his "Art of War" (now, at our suggestion, called "Civilised War") has sufficiently shewn. Most of the shorter pieces in this volume manifest the same energy of mind and power of description; though we must add that, especially in the Elegies, he has often wire-drawn a thought, and has fatigued us by forming stanza after stanza only to repeat the same idea. That he possesses feeling and sentiment will be evident to our readers, when they have perused the 6th Elegy,

WRITTEN ON REVISITING THE SCENES OF EARLY LIFE.

'Hail, loveliest scene these eyes have e'er survey'd!
Where my gay childhood innocently grew;
Where oft my feet with truant pastime play'd,
And my warm youth life's freshest pleasures knew!

'Roll back, ye hasty suns, and bring again
Those days of gold, then stand for ever still!
Ere thro' my frame had pierc'd the shafts of pain;
Ere my warm spirits care had learn'd to chill.

'Delightful Hope! gay, laughing prophetess!
The flattering painter of Futurity!
That told'st me I should feel unmingled bliss;
Come, tell me o'er again the charming lie!

'Repeat that tale I heard of days to come;
All rich with bright impossibilities!
Walks always smooth, and flowers of lasting bloom,
And thornless roses, and unclouded skies!

'Wild, wanton promiser! that told'st this breast,
This trusting breast, it ne'er should taste of pain;
By smiling Fates with boundless love carest!
The charming lie, come, tell me o'er again!

'Return that health which bloom'd without my care;
Came uninvok'd, and, though neglected, staid:

Which

Which ask'd nor lenient herb, nor fount nor air,
Contemn'd all danger, and despis'd all aid.

'Again, my bosom glow as then it glow'd;
When round I look'd, and felt that all was fair!
When high on rapture's eagle-wing I rode;
Tower'd to the sun, and spurn'd the clouds of care!

'Those slumbers sound again my senses bind,
That made but one sweet instant all my night;
That heard nor barking cur, nor howling wind,
Nor Time's deep, solemn toll proclaim his flight.

'And, oh! the fervours, Heav'n, renew, that ran
Through my young nerves, (sensation all divine!)
Ere broke that golden dream which show'd me man,
Not fairer in his form, than pure within.

'Ere yet Surprise had made her fearful start,
As hell-born Villainy first meets the view!
That smoothest smiles oft mask a frowning heart,
Ere yet my blissful inexperience knew.

'Give me again in all men to confide;
Again suspicion from my breast be driv'n;
Still would I view my kind with gen'rous pride,
And deem the word of man the word of Heav'n.

'And take once more your turn, ecstatic days!
When life's vast curtain rose, and bless'd my view!
Lo! the gay plumes, the spangles and the blaze!
All wond'rous bright, enchanting all and new!

'Move my still breast, sweet Novelty again!
Again with wild delight my passions dance!
Return the bounding heart, the fever'd brain,
Return the years of transport and romance!

'But, chief, that sweet surprise restore me, Fate,
Young Fancy felt in Academia's hall;
The Muse of Rome and Greece as first she met,
And each quick passion own'd her mighty call!

'On the bright plains when Fear first bent her gaze,
Where, back'd by gods, immortal heroes strove!
At dead of night, view'd Ilium's funeral blaze,
And shook, with heav'n, beneath the nod of Jove!

'When first young Pity wept with Hector's wife,
As her fall'n hero to her sight appears;
Saw Ajax' sword ease it's griev'd lord of life;
And swell'd the flood of exil'd Ovid's tears;

'And trac'd that flagging jav'lins languid flight,
An old man's trembling anger faintly threw;
Mock'd by the foe, who, in a father's sight,
The flying son, with barb'rous fury, slew:

'Saw

'Saw him, o'er scepter'd subjects, that had reign'd,
Of all vast Asia that had worn the crown,
An headless corse, unburied on the sand,
By no one honour'd, and to no one known!

'And shar'd his sigh, who, in the myrtle grove,
The unforgiving fair obscurely knew;
From him (too late return'd) who fled her love,
Cold, in her turn, the scornful shadow flew:

'Tho' woo'd with tears, the phantom shot away,
Nor injur'd Beauty's stately silence broke;
Heedless of all he now would idly say,
T' excuse the sails that her kind shore forsook.

'And give me, Nature, once again to prove,
Those dear, delirious, agitated days,
When woke within me first the throb of love,
And radiant Beauty dazzled first my gaze!

'Soft idle hours! when Reason sat retir'd,
And Fancy o'er me all her influence threw!
When, save what Laura's changeful eyes inspir'd,
No hopes I cherish'd, and no fears I knew!

'Resume, blest Lunacy, thy pleasing sway!
Return the wild delight,—the pensive sigh,—
The airy sonnet,—and the plaintive lay,—
The moonlight walk,—and sweetly sleepless eye!

'Enchanted grounds! o'er which I vacant stray'd,
In bowers of fragrance where I careless sat,
While more than earthly music round me play'd,
To a sad outcast ope again your gate!

'Ah! swift-wing'd joys! for ever, ever, flown!
Ah, fruitless revocation, fond and vain!
Adieu, blest days, that must but once be known!
Farewel, delights, I may not taste again!

'Come, Virtue, when all other joys retreat,
Still constant found! and, smiling Friendship, come!
And beauteous Truth!—now gaudier beams have set,
Gild, with your mild and lunar rays, my gloom.'

Sometimes, in the Elegies, Mr. F. is obscure; and sometimes the nerve of poetry is relaxed by a feeble epithet *. Speaking of the heart of the disappointed lover, he says,

'The agitated *thing* has stopp'd at last †.'

We

* 'Is that dejected bending figure *she*,
That nymph renown'd for high vivacity?' p. 75.

† Mr. F. seems fond of this epithet. *Jane Shore*, in the poem intitled "Change," is called

'A forlorn, neglected, withered *thing*.' p. 74.

Again

We do not approve of *leaping* bells, and *winnowing* wings; and "*lorn* esteem," in p. 47, does not seem to convey the sense of the author.

The *Sonnets* which follow the *Elegies* are of the same complexion. They are elegant;—and one line is beautiful:—

'Hope sweetly wipes the eye that wets the tomb.'

Miscellanies next follow; of which the first is intitled *Change*. Of this long poem, perhaps, the perusal of Juvenal's 10th Satire, or Dr. Johnson's imitation of it, ("The Vanity of Human Wishes,") may have suggested some of the thoughts. Mr. F. thus enters on his subject:

'Nought, nought is found, wherein our search can stray,
But fleet and baseless forms that glide away;
One stream of visions that in endless flow,
Appear and vanish, and *but come to go*.'

The last line is an instance of that vulgar tameness, and of ekeing out the metre line by the repetition of a thought in low terms, which the poet ought studiously to avoid.

We do not mean to insinuate that Mr. F. has tamely copied either Juvenal or Johnson. He has introduced many new thoughts and characters. That of the gamester is finely portrayed: but, after Johnson's delineation of Wolsey and Swift, we wonder that he should have ventured to re-draw *their* pictures.

"And Swift expires a driv'ler and a shew,"

is superior to Mr. Fawcett's line,

'A fury burns or dies into a fool.'

In the conclusion, however, he rises into sublimity. After having described the various gloomy instances of *Change* exhibited in this world, *whose fashion passes away*, he addresses the GREAT ENDURER, and then hails that *lasting* bliss which is the noble object of enlightened man's faith and hope:

'No dormant state I hail, of flat repose,
Where pant no ardours, where no action glows;
No pool of standing life that always sleeps,
O'er whose still sea no breeze of spirit sweeps;
No scene, as priests describe the bliss above,
Of heavy calmness, and of slumb'ring love;
Where useless saints on easy thrones recline,
And tune their idle wires to songs divine,
Relax'd in holy sloth, and piously supine:
Nor pastoral scene, as bards past ages feign,
Who sing of dulness undisturb'd by pain;

Again, p. 93, *meteors* are called 'blazing *things*.' And again, p. 132, 'human *thing*.'

Of meads, and flocks, and flowers, and brooks, and trees,
And lazy innocence, and torpid ease.
Whose forceless portrait of ill-imag'd *Bliss*,
Displays alone, in its tame drowsy *piece*,
A languid form, all careless laid along.
By murmuring waters lull'd, or warbling song;
As gifted man were only made to sleep,
To lie on violets, and to live with sheep!'——
'Not such, now beaming on her glistening eyes,
Not such the scene th'exulting Muse descries!
E'en more than this, a stirring, wakeful state;
Quick with yet livelier change, yet busier fate;
But happiest change alone, that blissful proves,
From truth to truth, from good to good, that moves;
Whose lovely flux, admir'd of Reason's eyes,
Is only endless fluency of rise;
Where fairest scenes, from fetters wisely freed,
Resign their place to fairer that succeed,
Which, in their turn, make way for yet more fair,
And, beauteously unstable, disappear!
Delightful state! in which th' admiring Muse,
The heavenly form of true Fruition views!
All bosoms throbbing with a public zeal;
All minds at work t' advance the general weal;
In tuneful chime, on one great aim intent,
Harmonious moving with a sweet consent;
Exploring Nature's mine, where Heav'n has stor'd
The means of welfare in a boundless hoard;
Whatever charms the social state they lend,
Still eager all, the beauteous piece to mend;
Content in no degree of bliss to rest,
Studious to add new blessings to the blest;
All present excellence resolv'd t'excel,
Whate'er its growth, the sum of good to swell,
Awaken'd intellect yet more excite,
To Truth's best lovers more endear her light,
Of minds the most enlarg'd expand the views,
In breasts the most inspir'd new fires infuse,
Bid joy sublime to loftier transport rise,
And breathe yet more of heaven in paradise!
'Such the fair state, in which alone appears
The genuine smile a pure elysium wears!
(The reign of strife, and wrong, and tumult o'er,
And fall and ruin mournful words no more)
Serenely fervid! busily at *ease!*
A scene of active rest, and glowing *peace!*
Whose gentle dove the eagle's force assumes,
And with whose olive glory's laurel blooms!
'Hail! radiant ages! hail, and haste along!
To reasoning man your splendid years belong!

Unclose your leaves of true, unfabled gold,
That hidden lie in Fate's rich volume roll'd!
Not Fancy, Faith the Muse this vision gave;
Of real scenes her sober raptures rave;
Prophetic fury what she sings inspires;
Truth's living coal hath lent her lip its fires:
Of moral science, lamp to love and peace,
The lucid crescent shines, whose bright increase
Shall lose its horns in plenitude of light,
And reach a glorious full, that ne'er shall wane to night.'

There is a great similarity, in this finale, to the animated conclusion of the "Civilised War."

To this poem succeed—*Leo Mansuetus Imp.* or the Emperor's tame Lion, *freely paraphrased from the second book of the Silvæ of Statius*—Verses written on visiting the Gardens at Versailles—On visiting the Gardens of Ermenonville, where a tribute is paid to poor Rousseau—On the general complacency with which infants are contemplated—The Contrast, *occasioned by seeing a gibbet deform a sylvan scene.* The poet calls on the magistrate not to persist in a practice so disgraceful to civil and humanised society, as that of hanging felons in chains:—a practice which has never been known to do any good. It never terrifies the atrocious offender;—it always disgusts the gentle and the reflecting traveller.

'Ye who direct the social state,
Which tauntingly ye civil call!
Who whip the crimes yourselves create,
Yourselves most criminal of all!

'Cannot the *city*'s ample room
Your polity's dark frowns confine,
That thus they spread their angry gloom,
Where loveliest Nature smiles benign.

'Oh, violation most profane!
That thus disfigures scenes like these;
And fills each gentler breast with pain,
Where all around conspires to please.'

We come next to—A Monody on the Death of a young Lady—The Nightingale—To a Robin, whose nest had been taken out of the author's garden—Louisa, a song—To the Sun, a fragment, written in the Spring. This is in blank verse, and in the author's best manner: but, though a divine, he expresses himself concerning beauteous Nature in terms which will not in these times be thought orthodox. He terms her

'Bible of ages! boundless word of God!
Writ in a language to all nations known;

And

'And through all time, with care divine, preserv'd
From all corrupt interpolations pure.' p. 152.

After two short poems, we find An Ode on the commemoration of the French Revolution in the Champ de Mars, July 14, 1792, which Mr. F. introduces by an advertisement, desiring 'the reader to keep the date of it in his eye, that he may not imagine that that unmoderated admiration of the French Revolution, which runs through it, extends to any of the transactions by which the cause of liberty in France was afterwards disgraced.' This piece is highly poetical, but we have no room for farther extracts.

A new edition of "Civilised War," with considerable alterations, follows;—and *a War Elegy* forms an Appendix. The volume concludes with "The Art of Poetry, according to the latest Improvements, By Sir Simon Swan, Baronet. With Additions." The meaning of the author in this satirical poem having been missed by the *dull* reader, Mr. F. makes the following remarks in his preface, in order to 'rectify absurd misapprehension:'

'With regard to the bagatelle at the close of this volume, the author takes this opportunity of rectifying a mistake respecting his meaning in the beginning of it, into which he has found one of his readers falling, and into which it is therefore possible that others may fall, although he should previously have entertained no suspicion of the possibility of such a misconception. In the passage alluded to, he has been erroneously conceived to make CORRECTNESS in poetical composition the object of his satire. He flatters himself, however, that an attentive reader (if such a trifle may be supposed entitled to an attentive perusal) will readily perceive, that it is not correctness which is there ridiculed, but productions of which correctness is the *only* or the *chief* excellence; not correctness in the abstract, but correct dulness. While he despises the notion, that negligence is among the features of Genius, he feels an equal contempt for that chilling system of criticism, most injurious to the rights of Genius, which bestows upon the page, where scarcely a fault can be detected, but where scarcely a beauty can be found, a degree of approbation which it denies to the genuine spirit of poetry, when accompanied with marks of carelessness. He has likewise been falsely supposed by the same individual, in the second branch of the same poem, to ridicule PLAINTIVE poetry. Of that pensive strain which flows from a melancholy mood, and is founded in social and generous sensibility, he feels the charm as much as any of its admirers; and has indulged himself in it, as this volume will discover, in no inconsiderable degree. What he aims to expose, is that *egotism* of complaint, of which *self* is the incessant subject: and chiefly, that wail of private woe, which, as, in more instances than one, he has strong reason to suspect has been the case, is the mere *affectation* of a sorrow that is not felt; which, instead of being the vent and relief of suffering nature, is the trick of art to produce pathetic effect;

which either flows from a writer whose real feelings are sprightly, or, if it take its gloomy hue from any, derives it from a far fainter shade of actual sadness than the deep one which it assumes. This species of plaintive poetry, at once selfish, and, in a greater or smaller degree, insincere, which he has met with, or imagines he has, in productions that, in other respects, have yielded him delight, is, he thinks, a proper subject for satire: not so much with a view to disparage the works of those who have already written in this spirit, as to prevent their poetical merit from seducing others to follow their example, and thus introduce a mournful monotony among the modern productions of the muse, instead of that variety of strain, which variety of talent and temper should naturally prompt, and from which the lovers of poetry derive diversity of entertainment. In writing that little piece, he can sincerely say, he was not actuated by the smallest tincture of ill-will towards any one of the writers whom he had in his eye, for the poetical talents of some of whom he entertains the most lively respect. If his satire be found deficient in wit, he hopes it will not be thought to want good humour. That was the feeling of his mind in penning every line of it; a regard to the interests of poetry and taste was his sole inducement to undertake it; it is the first composition of the kind he has ever written, and, as his natural dispositions lead him a totally different way, will probably be the last.'

We shall only add that the satire cannot be very pointed and discriminative, which requires so long an explanation; and that real genius is degraded by indulging in vague invectives against the correcting hand of criticism.

ART. V. *Dr.* Coote's *History of England.*

[*Article continued from the Rev. for January, p.* 51.]

WE concluded our former article on the subject of this work with an account of the third volume; and we then expressed our regret, which we have had frequent occasion of feeling, that the author's circumscribed plan prevented him from giving that attention to various objects and periods which their importance demanded. Hume's History, which extends only to the Revolution, and considers the Roman and the Saxon periods in little more than two hundred pages, occupies eight volumes; and the work of the present writer, which professes to discuss his subject 'from the earliest dawn of record to the peace of 1783,' is confined to the limited and inadequate space of nine octavos. We think that, while this plan is too comprehensive for an abridgment, it is yet not sufficiently ample to give a satisfactory view of the events of the respective periods in our history.

The fourth volume begins with the reign of Henry IV. and proceeds to the marriage of Henry VIII. with Anne Boleyn,

and his divorce from Catharine of Arragon, in the year 1533. The History of the Reformation, the motives in which it originated, and the steps by which it was completed, form a very interesting topic in the reign of this arbitrary, violent, and sanguinary monarch: but they do not appear to us to be anywhere so well and so satisfactorily related as in Dr. Henry's very valuable book. The death of Cardinal Beaton, which happened in the year 1547, and which was entirely occasioned by that Ecclesiastic's murder of Charles Wishart, a celebrated and enthusiastic preacher, has been falsely attributed to a previous encouragement given by Henry to his assassins; this mistake, for a mistake it certainly is, was probably occasioned by the assistance which they received from the English monarch after that event.

In the fifth volume, is included the remainder of the reign of Henry VIII. and the reigns of Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. The whole account of Edward is interesting, and fills the mind with favourable ideas of a prince who certainly manifested sense, moderation, and judgment beyond his years. Under his encouraging influence, the reformation of religion was promoted, and by his advice the repeal of many rigorous laws was procured; indeed, the whole tenor of his conduct was distinguished by vigilance and prudence.

'Had this prince (says Dr. Coote) been permitted to live to years of maturity*, he would doubtless have proved an able and respectable monarch. Of natural capacity he had a great share; and he seems to have had a genius for government. He reflected much on the concerns of his dignified station; he was sedulous in his inquiries into the state of his kingdom; he was acute in discovering the abuses which prevailed; he planned schemes of improvement and reformation; he encouraged every measure which he considered as conducive to the interests and the happiness of his people. He cultivated foreign politics with eagerness, and astonished the ambassadors of Europe by the variety of his knowledge and the sagacity of his observations. He patronised the arts, as well liberal as mechanical; and he was a friend to merit of every denomination. The navy, that bulwark of an insular situation, was improved under his auspices; and on commerce, that promoter of national aggrandisement, he bestowed a high degree of attention. Among the writings which are attributed to him, we find the heads of a judicious scheme for the establishment of a general mart of European commerce in England.

'He has been celebrated for the mildness and humanity of his disposition, for the modesty and humility of his deportment, for his regard to justice and equity, for his combination of liberality with œconomy, and for his vigorous application to public business. His literary character has also been the subject of extraordinary panegyric.

* He died in the 16th year of his age.

At an early age, he distinguished himself by his acquisitions in philology; he was acquainted with the controversial points of divinity; and he had made a great proficiency in philosophical pursuits. Cardan, the celebrated Italian physician, passing some time at his court, was surprised at the multifarious accomplishments which he observed in this princely youth; and he has borne testimony to Edward's acquaintance with ancient and modern languages; to his skill in logic, music, and natural philosophy; to his dignity of demeanor, and complacency of temper *.

'But, notwithstanding all the encomiums which have been passed on his character, some blemishes may be remarked. His early initiation in the doctrines of the reformers had given him so rooted a disgust to whatever was repugnant to his own religious ideas, that his devotion may justly be said to have been tinctured with bigotry; and though he deserves our commendation for having testified such reluctance to the execution of two anabaptists who were the only persons committed to the flames in his reign †, (and it is much to be regretted, for the honor of the protestants, that even two should suffer for opinions under their sway,) we should have been better pleased if he had carried to a greater extent his opposition to such unjustifiable cruelty. But the influence of Cranmer, whom he regarded as an oracle in points of religion, prevailed over the king's humanity.

'In another instance, there seems to be sufficient reason for blaming his want of mental vigor. We allude to the death of his uncle, the duke of Somerset, a faithful servant of the crown, whom, from a facility in believing the insinuations of his enemies, and from an apparent defect in manly firmness, he gave up to the malice of faction. The sacrifice of his other uncle was less reprehensible, as the guilt of that nobleman was less problematical ‡.'

The mildness and humanity of Edward must have been strongly contrasted in the minds of his subjects, as well as in the impartial opinion of posterity, with the horrible and unmitigated cruelty of Mary's government. That such savage and sanguinary acts should have been endured in a country which had advanced any steps towards civilization, is astonishing! but it nearly exceeds the bounds of belief, that these acts should have been practised under the pretence of promoting the cause of a religion, of which the distinguishing characteristics are peace, forbearance, and good-will towards men. From the contemplation of such enormities, we turn away with

'* Hieronym. Cardan. de Geniturâ, lib. xii.'

'† These were Joan Bocher, commonly called Joan of Kent, and Van Paris, a Hollander.'

'‡ This monarch was never married, though an alliance had been projected between him and one of the daughters of Henry II. of France. He was the founder of some valuable institutions. Christ's Hospital in London, that of St. Thomas in Southwark, and several free-schools in different parts of the realm, owe their establishment to his bounty.'

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horror and disgust.—Yet, in justice to Mary, it must be acknowleged that the execrable example was afforded her by the protestants, in the time of her predecessor, in the horrid instance which has been noticed in the preceding extract.

Queen Elizabeth was rendered deservedly popular, and obtained much admiration, by many of the events of a long and splendid reign: but still, in some instances of her conduct, we discover strong marks of a resemblance to the arbitrary, unrelenting, and cruel dispositions of her father and her sister. The whole course of her behaviour to the lovely and unfortunate Queen of Scotland, is marked by female jealousy, dissimulation, perfidy, and the most unfeminine severity.—Whatever might have been the errors of Mary's government, and of her private and personal conduct,—and we by no means deny that there were faults in both,—they were not subject to the jurisdiction of her rival. Elizabeth, in depriving the Queen of Scots of her life, acted in as open a violation of the law of nations, as of every principle of justice and every suggestion of humanity. We are inclined to believe, with the present author, that Mary was *not* guilty of Darnley's murder; and we think that what he urges in support of his opinion is powerful and satisfactory:

'The partisans of Murray immediately propagated reports to the prejudice of the queen's character, insinuating that she had been concerned in the murder of a husband whom she hated. But more satisfactory evidence than has yet been produced is necessary to justify those who have imputed to her so horrible a crime. However great was the aversion which she had conceived for Darnley, the humanity of her disposition was too strong to suffer her to concur in his destruction. Had she been desirous of his death, she might have procured the judicial condemnation of one who was so generally despised, that the nobles would not have interposed to rescue him from justice. She might have brought him to trial for the united crimes of murder and treason; of murder, in having abetted the assassination of her secretary; of treason, in having directed his agents to commit that deed in the queen's apartment, to the manifest hazard of her life. She might, with equal facility, have procured a legal separation from him, without injuring her son's legitimacy, which could not have been affected by a divorce grounded on his adulterous commerce with other women: or, even if there had been a risque of destroying the son's right of inheritance, an act which exposed that right to dispute would have been far less criminal than the murder of the father.

'From the character of the chief accusers of Mary, we may form a strong presumption of her innocence. These were the earls of Murray and Morton, who were men of such depraved hearts, and such unprincipled minds, that no crime which might gratify their irregular passions would appear too enormous for them to perpetrate. The former was confident that, by his hypocritical pretences to piety, and

by his artful mode of throwing off his own guilt on the heads of others, he could retain the good opinion of the whole presbyterian party, whose schemes of reformation he had warmly patronised. An eminent historian observes, that Murray could have no motive for the commission of the murder; but, without judging from the event (a practice which that writer justly represents as absurd), we may infer, from his conduct preceding the king's death, that he aimed at the possession of the government; and, as he retained a strong resentment against his sister for her final resolution of punishing him, which nothing but the situation of her affairs, on the assassination of Riccio, had induced her to relinquish, he was ready to contrive any scheme which might at once be subservient to his animosity and his ambition. We also find that he had been apprehensive of the execution of Darnley's menaces against his life *; a circumstance which, according to the frequent practice of that age, would prompt him to anticipate the blow. Under these circumstances, can it be justly said that he had no motive for the crime? On the contrary, he seems to have had every motive which, however repugnant to humanity and justice, could urge a vindictive and aspiring nobleman, who foresaw, in the event of the conspiracy, the indulgence not only of his revenge against Darnley, but likewise against the queen, whom, by calumnies consequent on the murder, and by such advice as might contribute to increase the effect of his malicious fabrications, he might render so unpopular that her deposition might easily be procured by his influence over a people who had long been impatient of the government of a catholic princess. The earl of Morton, the friend and confederate of Murray, was influenced by similar views. He was exasperated against the king for having deserted him after the murder of Riccio, in violation of his solemn engagements for the protection of the authors of that deed. Besides the desire of vengeance, the hopes of recovering his influence in the government, and the dignified office of chancellor, inclined him to promote, with great eagerness, the iniquitous schemes of the queen's brother.

'When Mary had received intelligence of her husband's sudden dissolution, she issued a proclamation, offering rewards for the discovery of the murderers. Bothwell being accused of the crime by the public voice, the earl of Lenox urged the queen to bring him to trial, as well as all other persons who were suspected of a concern in it. Mary, without hesitation, gave directions for that purpose; and Lenox was desired to repair to Edinburgh, that he might be present at the judicial proceedings. He had desired that Bothwell might be taken into custody; but the queen did not grant that request, as the accusation against him rested at present only on the evidence of anonymous bills fixed up in different parts of the city. When the day of trial arrived, the arts of Bothwell, and the influence of Morton and the other partisans of Murray (for this nobleman himself, to avoid suspicion, had lately retired into France), deterred the earl of Lenox from appearing as an accuser; and no evidence being adduced against Bothwell, the jury thought proper to acquit him. This verdict re-

* Camd. p. 110.

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ceived the sanction of a parliament which met two days afterwards; and the dissolution of this assembly was followed by a remarkable association of many of the nobles for promoting the marriage of Bothwell with the queen. They signed a bond, expressing their conviction of his innocence of the king's murder, and promising to hazard their lives and fortunes in defending him against all who should presume to charge him with that crime. He had lately been extremely assiduous in his endeavours to obtain the favor of Mary; but, when he made proposals of marriage to her, she signified her dissent. Unwilling to submit to a refusal, he resolved to make use of compulsive measures; and, by a daring violation of her chastity, to render a marriage with him necessary for the reparation of her wounded honor. He assembled a party of 800 horse, under the pretence of making an excursion against banditti; and meeting the queen in her return from a visit to her infant son, he dispersed her small guard, and seising her horse by the bridle, conveyed her to the castle of Dunbar. He there conjured, in the most persuasive terms, to forgive that vehemence of passion which had hurried him into this outrageous behaviour; called to her mind the loyal services which he had performed; represented in strong terms the inveterate malignity of his enemies; and declared that nothing but the queen's favor, exemplified in her acceptance of his hand, could secure him from the effects of their hatred. Her reluctance not being overcome by his artful insinuations, he produced the bond which the associated nobility had signed. Finding his addresses so strongly sanctioned, and not being aware of the perfidious views of the chief subscribers of the bond, she began to relax in her opposition to his proposals, and promised to gratify him with the matrimonial union. A mere promise not being so valid a security as he wished, he had recourse to "extraordinary and unlawful means" (according to the account of those who afterwards rebelled against her) for the completion of his wishes. Partly by artifice, and partly by force, (for the latter circumstance is mentioned by the rebels, in addition to the *extraordinary means*, by which, perhaps, philtres are alluded to), he triumphed over her chastity. He soon after procured a divorce from his wife; and when Mary had promoted him to the dukedom of Orkney, the nuptials between him and his sovereign were solemnised at Edinburgh *.'—

'Bothwell, in the mean time, though an undoubted agent in the murder, was suffered by the rebellious nobles to remain at Dunbar, unmolested, near a fortnight; a circumstance which may be considered as corroborative of the opinion of those who have attributed the contrivance of that deed to Murray and Morton. The latter, who, in the absence of the former, directed the motions of the insurgents, dreaded the regular condemnation of Bothwell, lest he should disclose such particulars as might injure the reputation of his secret accomplices. He therefore connived at the retreat of this obnoxious nobleman, who, apprehensive of the stroke of assassination, put to sea with a few vessels, and commenced the practice of naval depredation. Being pursued by Kirkaldy of Grange, he escaped to Norway, where

* Melvil's Memoirs,—Anderson,'

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he was thrown into prison for an act of piracy. He died in confinement some years afterwards; and, on his death-bed, made a solemn declaration of queen Mary's innocence of the murder of Darnley, in which, he affirmed, the earls of Murray and Morton, secretary Maitland, and other persons of distinction, were concerned with him *.'

The prejudices entertained by Elizabeth against her unhappy kinswoman were evident in her conduct in the appointment of commissioners, and in the testimony which she admitted or rejected on those occasions.

'When the different commissions had been read, Mary's representatives entered a protest, importing, that, though she had consented to refer the disputes between herself and her rebellious subjects to the arbitration of the queen of England, she had no idea of acknowledging any superiority in that princess, but was herself an independent sovereign. The English commissioners, on the other hand, declared that, though they received this protest, they would not suffer it to prejudice that right of feudal superiority which the sovereigns of England had formerly claimed over Scotland. A paper was afterwards presented to the court by Mary's deputies, containing a statement of the acts of treason and rebellion committed against her by her brother's faction, and of the successive injuries which had been heaped upon her. The regent, in his turn, accused Mary of having countenanced the iniquitous schemes of the earl of Bothwell, so as to render it necessary for her nobles to insist on his dismission from her society; mentioned the steps which had been taken against the earl, as well as against the queen, whose partiality for him justified them in depriving her of her liberty; and affirmed that she had voluntarily resigned her crown to her son, from the disgust which the fatigues and inquietudes of royalty had excited in her mind; that the parliament had sanctioned her resignation; and that the national affairs had been conducted with order and tranquillity, till some turbulent individuals had released her from her confinement, and taken arms against the young king †.

'The omission of the charge of murder against the Scottish queen, which the regent had before industriously propagated, gave great surprise to many. But, exclusive of the supposition that he was scrupulous of advancing an accusation which he knew to be incapable of proof, he had lately had secret conferences with the duke of Norfolk, which may account for his present silence on this head. The duke, commiserating the fate of Mary, of whose restoration he was sincerely desirous, and whose person he wished to possess, remonstrated with the regent on the infamy to which he would subject himself by a public accusation of his sister and his sovereign; assured him that Elizabeth had resolved not to give a definitive sentence in the cause, whatever evidence might be adduced on either side; and hinted the danger not only of being deserted by that queen, but of being exposed to the severest vengeance of Mary, if she should ever regain

'* Appendix to Keith's Hist.'

'† Anderson, vol. iv.—Camd. p. 138—141.'

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her crown. The earl listened to these observations, and gave the duke a promise that he would not produce those documents which, he pretended, would convict Mary of adultery and murder *.

'The documents here alluded to consisted of letters and sonnets, supposed to have been written by Mary to Bothwell. If these were genuine, little doubt would remain of the guilt of that princess. A controversy has long subsisted on this subject; and authors of eminence have appeared on both sides of the question. Some have maintained, that the letters and poems are the real compositions of Mary; while others, after a very accurate examination, have proved to the general satisfaction, that they were forged under the auspices of the earls of Murray and Morton, whom not only the most respectable friends of the injured queen, but many of the criminals who suffered death for their agency in the murder of Darnley, accused of having planned that nefarious deed.

'These pretended productions of Mary were shown by the regent to Elizabeth's commissioners, in a private interview; a circumstance which does not give us a very high opinion of the candor of the earl and his colleagues, who thus clandestinely tampered with the English delegates in the consideration of that important evidence which ought to have been first produced in open court. They had before expressed an unwillingness to exhibit in form this grand head of accusation, till they had received an explicit answer on the following points; whether the commissioners were authorised to give a final decree in the cause; and whether Elizabeth would protect the accusers of Mary from that resentment which the latter princess would naturally feel against her adversaries. To these interrogatories an evasive reply was given by the English deputies, who, at the desire of the regent, sent to Elizabeth for further instructions. It was in this interval of delay, that Murray had privately opened to them his budget of evidence, that they might communicate their opinion of it to their sovereign, who would then see how far they were disposed to concur in the plan which she and the earl appear to have concerted for obstructing the vindication of Mary's character. From the account which they gave Elizabeth of the papers, she was inclined to think that they considered them as forgeries; a circumstance which did not coincide with her views. Hence she was induced to recall the commission which she had granted, and to evoke the cause to Westminster, where the proceedings would be more immediately under her eye. A new commission was then issued, in which, though the duke of Norfolk and his two colleagues were re-appointed, five other delegates were named in whose subserviency Elizabeth placed greater confidence. These were the lord-keeper Bacon, the earls of Arundel and Leicester, Clinton the high admiral, and secretary Cecil †.'

In the interval between the sentence of the Scottish queen and its execution, Elizabeth acted a part remarkable for dissimulation and hypocrisy:

'* Melvil's Memoirs.—Burghley's State Papers, vol. i. p. 574.'

'† Anderson, vol. iv.—Burghley's Papers, vol. i.—Camd. Ann. Eliz.'

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'When Elizabeth found that the tide of public prejudice continued to run strongly against Mary, and that the people were as eager as herself for the execution of that princess, she commanded secretary Davison to prepare the warrant for her signature. As soon as it was produced before her, she signed it with as much cheerfulness and self-complacency as if it had contained the grant of a pardon. She even insulted the misfortunes of the injured queen by unseasonable jocularity. Having desired the secretary to inform his colleague Walsingham (then indisposed) of what she had done, she added, with an air of levity, that she was apprehensive of his dying of grief at the intelligence. But, after she had thus given her sanction to the public execution of Mary, her fear of the censures of mankind suggested to her an expedient by which she hoped to remove the odium of her death on her keepers. She wished them to murder her in private, on pretence of the association by which they had bound themselves to revenge any attempt against the life of their own sovereign. This contrivance, she flattered herself, would tend to the propagation of an opinion that she had not consented to Mary's death, and that the officious zeal of private individuals had perpetrated the deed without her knowledge. Pleased with the suggestion, she ordered the two secretaries of state to write a letter to Paulet and Drury, reproaching them with their want of loyalty and public spirit, in not having relieved her, by some violent and decisive means, from the danger to which she was hourly exposed by the life of Mary; urging the bond of association as a sufficient justification of such a measure, to their own conscience as well as to the world; and reprobating their unkindness in wishing to throw the odium upon her, acquainted as they were with the humanity of her disposition, which rendered it so unpleasing to her to order the execution even of the lowest criminal, that they might easily suppose her to be peculiarly averse to the idea of issuing a warrant for the delivery of a princess of her own family into the hands of the executioner *. Paulet and his associate, though not remarkable for their tenderness to Mary, had too much honor to perpetrate the infamous deed in which their unprincipled sovereign was desirous of employing them. She might command, they said, their honorable services; but they scorned to act the part of assassins. Mortified at their refusal, which she ridiculed as the offspring of precise delicacy and idle scrupulosity, Elizabeth resolved to instigate some less conscientious persons to the secret murder of the Scottish queen. But, being at length dissuaded from that resolution by the remonstrances of Davison, she thought proper to have recourse to the regular execution of the sentence. That minister having communicated the warrant to the chancellor for the application of the great seal to it, Elizabeth sent a messenger to countermand that operation; and finding that it was already performed, she reprimanded Davison for his precipitation. Wishing to draw him into a snare, that she might have a pretence for imputing Mary's execution to him, she neither ordered him to issue the warrant, nor to with-hold it †. Con-

'* Camd. p. 502.—Strype, vol. iii.—Biographia Britannica, art. Davison.'

'† Strype, vol. iii.'

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ceiving it to be his duty to expedite a writ which had passed through the necessary forms, and which he knew the queen to be extremely desirous of executing, he produced it before the privy council; and, as Burghley, Hatton, and other experienced courtiers, penetrated her schemes against Davison, of which indeed he himself had some suspicion, they resolved to gratify her wish, and easily persuaded the whole assembly to concur in sending off the warrant, without further communication with their mistress. To allay the apprehensions of Davison, all the counsellors engaged to bear an equal share of the blame that might attend this measure *.'

After the execution of the unfortunate Mary, which Dr. Coote has narrated in terms of simple eloquence and pathos, the English sovereign still maintained an appearance of kindness and regret:

'When the execution of Mary was notified to Elizabeth, another scene of hypocrisy appeared. She affected the utmost grief and astonishment, and threatened her ministers with her severest displeasure, for having put her dear sister to death not only without her knowledge or consent, but even in opposition to her declared will. She wrote a letter to the king of Scotland, asserting her innocence of his mother's death, and professing an inviolable attachment to his interests. James was so incensed at Mary's fate, that he resolved not only to renounce his alliance with Elizabeth, but to avenge, by hostilities, the cause of the murdered princess. His nobles applauded the justness of his resentment, and promised to act with vigor against a queen who had insulted and degraded their nation. He refused to admit Sir Robert Cary, the bearer of Elizabeth's letter, within his frontiers; though he afterwards consented that the epistle should be received, as well as a memorial written by Cary, in which the blame of Mary's execution was imputed to secretary Davison, whom the queen intented to punish severely for his presumption. These dispatches did not tend to allay the wrath of James, who easily discerned the falsehoods which they contained. He continued to think of revenge; and, as his own kingdom was too weak to give him hopes of success in a war with England, he looked out for a powerful ally, by whose aid he might effectually punish the injustice, and humble the arrogance of Elizabeth †.

'In the mean time, Davison was prosecuted in the star-chamber for a misdemeanor, in having produced the warrant before the privy council without the orders of the queen, who affirmed that she had strictly enjoined him not to communicate it to any one till he had received further directions from her. Though Davison denied that she had given him such a charge, he was condemned by an arbitrary court to pay a fine of 10,000l. and to suffer imprisonment during the queen's pleasure. This iniquitous sentence reduced the secretary to indigence and misery. He lingered some years in confinement; during which the queen, by whose tyranny he had been ruined, occasionally relieved his necessities ‡.'

'* Camd. p. 502. '† Spotswood's Hist. of Scotland.—Camd. Ann.'
'‡ Camd. p. 496—501.—Strype, vol. iii.'

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We shall contrast the characters of these two extraordinary female sovereigns, as drawn by the present historian, that the reader may be enabled to form an estimate of his judgment and impartiality:

'Thus fell Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland in her own right, dowager of France, and heiress of the crowns of England and Ireland; a victim to the malignity of female jealousy, and to the rage of puritanical bigotry. Having sufficiently spoken of the controverted parts of her conduct, we shall now dismiss this illustrious female with a sketch of her general character. Her personal accomplishments were brilliant and captivating. By beauty of countenance, symmetry of form, and dignity of stature, she was eminently distinguished. The natural elegance of her address, improved by the polish of Gallic education, heightened the attractions of her person; and her engaging affability, vivacity, and ease, delighted all who had the honor of conversing with her. She possessed very respectable talents; and her mind was cultivated by literature and erudition. In the profound knowledge of policy and government, she was inferior to Elizabeth; but, in generosity, magnanimity, and other royal virtues, she excelled her celebrated rival. Of the crimes of murder and adultery, of which she has been so peremptorily accused, we have endeavoured to acquit her, not only on the ground of insufficiency of evidence, but on the consideration of the flagitious characters of her chief accusers. Into acts of indiscretion, however, she was sometimes hurried, by the warmth of her feelings, and the suddenness of her resolutions. Her attachment to her religion was so strong as to expose her to the imputation of bigotry; and though she made no open attempts to overturn that theological system which her subjects had established during her absence on the continent, her forbearance was less the result of inclination than of the weakness of female authority over a bold and turbulent people. Being naturally frank and open (though she was not unskilled in dissimulation), she was inclined to entertain too favorable an opinion of those who concealed their vices; and her occasional credulity, and unseasonable clemency, afforded the ambitious hypocrites of her court an opportunity of effecting her ruin. Her deportment had too great an appearance of levity, to please those fanatics who, under the auspices of the earl of Murray, and the instructions of Knox, endeavoured to throw a gloom over the innocent cheerfulness of life. She did not perhaps take the most proper steps for repressing the factious spirit of her nobles, or the seditious excesses of her clergy; and, by deviating, in some instances, from the paths of prudence and judgment, she was less able to avert the storm which drove her from her throne. Her weakness in trusting to the professions of Elizabeth cannot be mentioned without censure; but her behaviour in that long series of adversity which she sustained after she had put herself into the power of the English queen, demands our admiration of her patience, fortitude, and constancy. In her prison, and on the scaffold, she appears a greater woman than Elizabeth on her throne, trembling, like a jealous tyrant, with mean suspicions and degrading fears.'—

'The

'The length of a reign in which the sovereign, far from being the puppet or tool of a ministry, was the animating spirit of every public measure, has given the reader so many opportunities of discerning the genius and character of Elizabeth, that a very slight sketch will here suffice. Her masculine turn of mind, her firmness, her penetration, and her judgment, qualified her for the government of an empire. Learned, intelligent, and enlightened; active, vigilant, and circumspect; studious of the honor of her country, and of the general welfare of her subjects; she acquired a reputation and a popularity which greatly contributed to the success of her enterprises, and the prosperity of her sway. Though menaced with ruin by the catholic powers of the continent, she baffled all their schemes by her consummate prudence and distinguished address: she despised the thunders of the Vatican, and the more formidable artillery of Philip; and, by the efforts of a brave people who cheerfully risqued their lives in the service of their admired princess, she was enabled to triumph over the persevering malignity and the tremendous preparations of her foreign enemies. Her domestic foes she sometimes overawed by severity, and sometimes conciliated by lenity; but her disposition seemed more to incline her to the former conduct. She was of an imperious spirit, and was impatient of the least opposition to her will; and the storms of passion into which she was betrayed were frequent and violent. Her frugality was carried to such an extremity as sometimes to obstruct the complete success of her schemes; and her desire of treasure impelled her into extortion and rapacity. Her courage and fortitude did not defend her from jealousies and suspicions, which, in the case of the Scottish queen, she indulged to a disgraceful excess. Indeed, her whole conduct towards that princess was a series of dissimulation, perfidy, injustice, and barbarity. Though her general government was just and moderate, she was guilty of many acts of oppression; but even these abuses of power did not extinguish that popular regard which she had procured by the splendor of her talents, by the great qualities which entered into her composition, by her winning affability and courtesy to the lower ranks of the community, by her indefatigable attention to public affairs, and by the great events and signal achievements of her reign.'

The influence which the Earl of Essex possessed over the mind of his royal mistress, and the effects of his misconduct in Ireland, are not, in our opinion, sufficiently detailed by Dr. Coote; and the same objection may be made with respect to other great and important events in this reign.

The VIth volume contains the history of the Stuarts; a family, we think, more undeserving than unfortunate; and though the fate of the first Charles was severe, and his trial and sentence were unconstitutional and illegal, yet it must be allowed that he committed many unkingly faults, which perhaps would have justified the depriving him of regal authority,

though, according to our notions of government, no failure of duty on his part could justify his execution.

The events of the reign of James the First are related with simplicity and impartiality; and his conduct in many important transactions receives the just tribute of censure or of praise, according to the respective qualities of his actions:—but Dr. Coote entertains a more favourable opinion of the character of this prince, than we have ever been able to adopt.

In a future article, we shall consider the remaining volumes of this work.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VI. *The Rural Economy of the Southern Counties;* comprizing Kent, Surry, Sussex; the Isle of Wight; the Chalk Hills of Wiltshire, Hampshire, &c: and including the Culture and Management of Hops, in the Districts of Maidstone, Canterbury, and Farnham. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 410. each. 15s. Boards. Nicol. 1798.

WE heartily congratulate this intelligent and indefatigable professionalist, on having finished his *Survey of English Agriculture;* which, though the extent, variety, and magnitude of the objects which it embraces will necessarily prevent it from being perfect, is yet highly instructive and useful to the reader, as well as honorable to the author. His *Notitiæ Rusticæ* in these volumes discover, as on former occasions, the mind of science, the eye of experience, and the heart of philanthropy. No one will doubt his ability to report the state of agriculture in any province, and to suggest hints for improving any particular custom or practice. By comparing different usages, and noticing every variety of management, he may be instrumental in promoting the most beneficial reformations. The country-gentleman and the intelligent farmer, of every district, will probably pronounce Mr. M.'s Survey to be defective in some particulars: but they will rarely peruse his clear statements, and his acute remarks and hints for improvement, without acknowleging his genius and expressing their obligations.

We read with concern, in some places, that Mr. M. 'had here few opportunities of examining;'—that he 'was not prepared for detail;'—that he 'had not time for collecting information;'—and that his 'information is confined.' We think that, in these cases, Mr. M. should have applied by letter to the most able persons of the district in question, and should have followed the plan of some other writers on rural affairs; who, to their own experience and observation, have added the experience and observation of many other intelligent country gentlemen

men and agriculturists. Individual genius, endowed and improved to the utmost extent, can neither be omnipresent nor omniscient.

Mr. M. has divided the southern counties of England into the following departments;—The District of Maidstone—The Weald of Kent—Romney Marsh—The District of Canterbury—The Isle of Thanet—The Valley of Farnham—The Heaths of Surrey, &c.—The Weald of Sussex—The District of Petworth—The Sea-coast of Sussex—The Isle of Wight—The Western and Eastern Chalk Hills.

To the first of these districts, the author appears to have paid much attention, and his description of it is the most detailed and probably the most perfect of any in the volumes.

The account of this portion of Kent is not given without proper notice of the good law of *gavelkind*, still prevalent in that county, and which was confirmed to the men of Kent by William the Norman, as their custom, on surrendering to him. After having mentioned this law, by which the lands descend, not to the eldest, youngest, or any one son only, but to all the sons together,—and, in default of male issue, (in conformity with the common law, though Mr. M. does not state this,) equally among the females,—Mr. M. remarks that there are in the district of Maidstone, landed estates of considerable size; which (he says) is good evidence to shew that, while this law is capable by its operation of multiplying landed proprietors, 'and of producing the most valuable order of men which any country can possess,—men who occupy their own estates, and who are at once best calculated to defend and to cultivate their country;—it does not obstruct the accumulation of property, so much as to prevent those distinctions in society which appear to be necessary to the lasting welfare of a nation; and the suppression of this antient law may well be considered as the greatest evil, which the Norman conquest entailed on this country.' Again in p. 54, the subject recurs in paying his respects to that truly respectable class of British subjects,—the Yeomanry of Kent.

'Out of the *law of gavelkind*, this valuable order of men have principally risen. And seeing the present flourishing state of their country, after seven hundred years of experience, the wisdom of that law appears in a strong light.'—

'The rightful tendency of the principle of this law was exemplified, some years ago, in the district under view. A person, who died possessed of considerable property, left five sons, *and a will*; in which, partiality to individuals was of course expected. Nevertheless, the brothers, *harmonized by the influence of equal law*, agreed, before the will was broken open, to inherit, according to the *natural* law of the country; and the will was burnt with its seal unbroken.'

'The operation of this equitable law in the instance under notice, has been highly favorable to society; which has thereby gained five wealthy, respectable, *productive* members: yeomen of the higher class. Whereas, had the whole property devolved on one of them; even this one, probably, would have been rendered unprofitable to society: while the rest must have been thrown upon the world;—to scramble for property, in trade, or the professions.'

The author now proceeds to the subjects of—*work-people—beasts of labour—implements of husbandry*, &c. Under the last of these heads, he minutely describes the plow of Kent, called *the Kentish turn-wrest plow*, and concludes the section with urging the utility of *a public repository of instruments of husbandry*; since the attempts which have been made to realize the representations, and even the drawings, of complex instruments, have proved abortive. To this hint we will add that it may not be improper, nor unwise in a public view, for agricultural societies to offer premiums for the exhibition and use of implements not common to their district; which would provoke comparison, and enable gentlemen to decide on the fitness of adopting or encouraging, on their own estates, any foreign custom or machine. Indeed, as Mr. M. suggests in the subsequent section, not only the construction of instruments but their ready use requires to be taught.

Anxious to collect all the minutiæ which relate to rural economy, the author does not suffer even a bird-trap or a rat-trap to pass unobserved. Experience has taught him that rats are more destructive animals than moles, and he wonders that farmers are not more attentive in securing themselves against their ravages. Towards the conclusion of the second volume, he recommends the erection of *barns on piles*, for this purpose; and in the first volume he states it to be his opinion that their destruction is so important, that it should be the object of a county rate. The quantity of corn which these animals destroy is immense; and if it be impossible absolutely to extirpate them, it should be remembered by farmers that, as rats cannot live without drinking, those places will be most free from them which are cut off from communication with water. As we are convinced that every method ought to be pursued to diminish the number of these vermin, we shall relate, in Mr. M.'s own words, a curious fact which he collected during his examination of the farm-yard-management prevalent in the Maidstone districts:

'A respectable yeoman, and most ingenious husbandman, in the neighbourhood of Maidstone, * has, for some years past, been pos-

'* Mr. Fowle of Fant; to whom I am indebted for much information.'

sessed

sessed of a method of drawing them together, in numbers; and even of rendering them, in a degree, tame and familiar; not, however, by any charm or fascinating lure; but by pursuing obvious and rational means; and on principles similar to those employed, in taking mice, in the instance noticed, in YORKSHIRE.

'The season, best adapted to the purpose, is that of summer; when the barns are empty, and their allowance of provisions short. At this time, such food is provided, as is found, by experience, to be most agreeable to them. Wheat flour and sugar, scented with the oil of caraway, and formed into paste with water, has been found to be a favorite food. The chief difficulty of preparation lies in communicating the scent, evenly to the whole, so as not to give pungency to any part. This is done, by rubbing the oil into the palms of the hands, and then rubbing the flour between them; afterwards rubbing the flour and sugar together, in a similar manner.

'A recluse part of the farm buildings, near their favorite haunt, being pitched on, and darkened, they are continued to be fed, with balls or bits of this palatable, wholesome paste, at stated times, or regular meals; until the whole, or a considerable number, of those that inhabit the premises, are drawn together, and feed freely, on the food prepared for them; when they are either concentrated on a platform, over which a falling trap is suspended, so as to drop instantaneously, and inclose the whole collection; or, which requires much less time and attention, a sufficient quantity of arsenic is added to the paste, to operate as a poison.

'In adding this, as in giving the scent, much caution is required. The least grittiness offends, or alarms them; so that the arsenic cannot be pounded too fine; it ought to be elutriated, or washed over; by which means no particle, that is not capable of being momentarily suspended in water, can enter the composition; which is made up, with this poisonous liquor, instead of pure water.'

To this must be added another invention of the same person, called *A Vermin Trap*, on a new principle.

'It consists of a wooden box, or hutch, resembling the dog hutch or kennel, which is usually provided for the yard dog, to hide and sleep in; its form being that of the barn. It is divided, in the middle, by an open wire partition, running from end to end, and reaching from the ridge of the roof to the floor. One side of this partition is again divided, into two parts, or cages; one of them for a tame rabbit, the other for a live fowl, to allure the vermin. The other half of the hutch being formed into a falling box trap, to take them! Great numbers of weasels, stoats, and polecats (as well as domestic cats) have been caught, in coppices and hedgerows, by this most simple and ingenious, yet, when known, most obvious device.'

The Maidstone district being celebrated for its Hop culture, Mr. M. particularly enters into the natural history of this vegetable; noticing its varieties,—the soil and subsoil most suitable to it;—time of planting,—method of manuring,—training, poling, picking, curing, packing, marketing expences, and *pro-*

duce; the latter, in Kent, he estimates at ten thousand acres,—bearing, on an average of years, five thousand tons of hops.

In giving the natural history of the Hop, Mr. Marshall relates a circumstance which, though he tells us that he received it from the largest and most successful hop planter that the island ever knew, we can scarcely credit; viz. *that cultivated or female hops are liable to change into seed hops or males.* Mr. M. is disposed to think 'that it may belong to *the nature of diœcious plants, whose roots are perennial and stems annual*, to do it occasionally.' The subject is interesting to the botanist, who ought to investigate the matter attentively, in order to ascertain the fact. Then, we may reason on it.

The Hop harvest of England resembles the cheerful season of the vintage in warmer countries. It is not only a scene of labour, but of freedom, mirth, and pleasure. Mr. M. thus describes it:

'The hop picking is a sort of jubilee; during which a licence of speech, and relaxation of manners, are authorised by CUSTOM: any thing may be said, and many things done, which would not pass uncensured, at another season. What strikes a stranger the most, as being himself concerned, is the homage with which he is received, on joining one of those licenced groups. The fairest, or the forwardest, of the female pickers, having selected the finest bunch of hops in her view, approaches him, with great respect,—and "wipes his shoes"—or rather touches them with it; and then offers it to him.

'Whatever might be the origin of this singular custom, its modern intention is too evident to be mistaken, by those who attract its notice. It is that of collecting silver: which either goes towards the HOP SUPPER, that is always given, on the evening of the last day of picking; or is expended, in fulfilling another custom of the hop harvest, whose origin might be found equally difficult to be traced.

'This may be termed the DECORATION OF HATS. A few days before the picking is compleated, by any particular planter, the company of pickers, belonging to such individual, decorate a hat, at their joint expence, with a handkerchief of gaudy hue, and with ribbons and gilded ornaments. This is the hat of the head binman. Another is adorned with ribbons, only. This is the carter's. These hats are exposed to public view, before the day of finishing, are displayed at the hop supper, and afterwards worn in public; each company endeavouring to outvie the other, in finery.

'These rustic feats, and the revelry which attends them, are the more excusable, as they close the labours of the year; and may serve, by leaving favorable impressions of the past, to alleviate the sufferings of toils to come.'

To the long discussion of hops, are subjoined 'general remarks on this article, as a species of farm-produce,' which are not unworthy of the hop-grower's notice.

After the Hop-grounds, the orchards of Kent engage our author's attention. Here he mentions a preservative for the stems of trees, which is in use; and he recommends a home manufacture called *gaule wine*, made from the black currant, as no contemptible substitute for *Port-Wine*. The receipt for making this British Port, he unfortunately does not give: but the preservative for guarding the stems of fruit trees from being injured by sheep and hares, he tells us, is simply a *white-wash*, composed of lime, night soil, and water, of such a consistency as to be put on with a brush. Any good chemist, we imagine, would form a more elegant recipe from this hint.

We believe that the observations made by Mr. M. on the Isle of Thanet are, on the whole, just,—though he appears to have explored that spot rapidly: but, when he proposes to inclose it, we question the wisdom of his advice. It is now extremely fertile, and its cultivators are rich; it is of a porous soil, and does not want ditches. By inclosing it, much ground would be lost; the fences would harbour birds, which would prevent the Thanet-farmer from growing some crops which are now raised with ease: much corn under the hedges would be stained, if not spoiled; and this islet might lose its character for the bright samples of barley which it now sends to market.

There is one circumstance respecting farmers in the Isle of Thanet which our author has not mentioned, but which has been communicated to us as fact, viz. that they never admit strangers even to help them to get in their harvest,—which, in this open, elevated, uninclosed country, is not liable soon to spoil on the ground. By this regulation, they avoid the risk of increasing their poor's rate.

To Mr. M.'s hints for the improvement of Romney Marsh, we can subscribe; and probably the farmers of that district, if they can, will avail themselves of them.

When Mr. Marshall proceeds to the Valley of Farnham, he condemns the practice of the hop-growers in this celebrated district; viewing it in a national light. 'The really "fine samples" of Farnham (he says) are in reality no other than hops gathered *under ripe*;' and he is of opinion that they are over-rated.

'They have, certainly, one very powerful recommendation. They are dear; bear the best price; are ever at the top of the market. And although this may not always be a sufficient recommendation to gentlemen (by whom, I understand, the Farnham hops are chiefly consumed) it doubtless has its weight with their butlers.

'Upon the whole, however, if through the name of Farnham hops, such a liquor can be produced, as will render malt liquor fashionable, and thereby lessen the present inordinate import or

foreign fruit liquors, it will be of less concern to the public, whether their estimated merits, in producing it, be real or imaginary.'

We have with pleasure followed Mr. M. into the Wealds of Kent and Sussex, and over the heaths of Surrey, and into the Isle of Wight: but into these districts we must not think of conducting our readers.

In exploring the district of Petworth, he experienced the politeness of the Earl of Egremont, which he gratefully acknowleges. An interesting experiment made by this noble Earl, on fatting porkers at grass, is here recorded; and Mr. M. assures us that this *grass-pork* was *firm!* finely flavoured, and the colour peculiarly delicate.

It will however be of more importance to farmers, particularly those who cultivate strong soils, to attend to a hint which Mr. M. throws out to prevent the expensive process of lime-burning. As the effect of chalk as a manure on stiff soils depends on its being pulverized, and as it is burnt into lime solely for this purpose, he recommends, where fuel is scarce, the substitution of a mill, turned either by wind or water, to bruise it to the state of powder.

We could extract many other instances, to prove the author's solicitude to aid the farmer in his important business, and to perfect the rural economy of the kingdom: but this article is already of sufficient extent, and the agricultural works of Mr. Marshall do not require *our* recommendation.

ART. VII. *The Gardens*, a Poem. Translated from the French of the Abbé de Lille. 4to. pp. 120. 15s. Boards. Edwards. 1798.

RESPECT for this poem has increased with the celebrity of the author, who is still living, and who is regarded by his countrymen as the first poet of the present age *. He confesses, in his text and notes, that the style of gardening which he describes 'was first attempted with success in England, by Kent, a famous architect, and designer of the landscape garden which now begins to prevail all over Europe:'—but the Abbé, supposing that the Chinese were the original inventors of this style, quotes Sir William Chambers's Dissertation on Oriental Gardening, and mentions not Mr. Mason's English Garden, nor

* We announced this poem, in the original, in our lxixth volume, p. 72. An English version of it, also, was mentioned in our vth volume, New Series, p. 154. but whether from inferiority of translation, or from whatever cause, we did not then experience that pleasure in the perusal of it which we have now derived.

Mr.

Mr. Walpole's (late Lord Orford) Essay on Modern Gardening, though both must have appeared before this poem was published.

The truth is that the English taste in gardens, and laying out the grounds surrounding villas and great provincial mansions, was suggested by Milton, (in his description of the garden of Eden,) by Addison, and by Pope, and was pursued and reduced to practice by Kent and Brown, a considerable time before even tradition had carried it to the continent. We were certainly the first in Europe who quitted the regular style, and destroyed parterres, straight lines, vegetable sculpture, symmetry, and unnatural regularity, to give place to open prospects and inequalities of ground; in order to catch a view of distant hills, woods, and flowing (not stagnant) waters: *imitating* rivers at least, by concealing the beginning and termination of lakes and pieces of standing water, and giving to the whole the semblance of Nature's work.

From what we read in Sir William Chambers's Dissertation, in Pere du Halde, and other missionaries, and travellers, and from what we hear related concerning the magnificence, splendour, art, and refinement of the Chinese in imitating nature, *en grand*, we are unable, (and, let us hope, unwilling,) from the enormous expence and occupation of soil, to copy their extravagance in gardening. Yet, though the simplicity, freedom, and unaffected imitation of nature in laying out pleasure grounds, on a *small scale*, may perhaps have been practised by the Chinese in much higher antiquity than by ourselves, we rather think that this method was invented a second time in England, and came on progressively from the precepts of Bacon, Wotton, Milton, Addison, and Pope, than that it was stolen or servilely imitated from the practice of any other country. Lord Orford and Mr. Mason are offended with the French writers on the present irregular style of gardening, for asserting that we had it from China; ascribing to envy their unwillingness to allow us the merit of invention:—but however they may wish to rob us of this sprig of laurel, there is English authority for the supposition: for Sir William Temple, when describing Moor Park (which was entirely in the old geometric style) as the sweetest place that he had ever seen in his life at home or abroad, adds: "What I have said of the best forms of gardens is meant only of such as are in some sort regular; for there may be other forms wholly irregular, that may, for aught I know, have more beauty than any of the others;—— something of this kind I have seen in some places, but heard more of it from others, *who have lived among the* CHINESES."

Though we were at war with France before this work was first published (1782), yet, from the urbanity of the author towards us, the poem was thought by some to spring from the remains of the *Anglomania* which was said to have raged in that country previously to this war. Not a hostile nor an invidious reflection against this nation escapes him throughout the whole work; and though, in civility to his countrymen, he is obliged to say that he does not venture to decide between the merit of Le Nôtre and Kent,

> 'Each to our choice presents a separate claim,
> But both are equal candidates for fame,'

yet he abandons the works of the one to destruction, and adopts for imitation those of the other. He recommends Milton's description of Paradise as a model for gardens, and owns that England taught his countrymen how to cover and embellish the earth:

> ——"*Mais enfin Angleterre*
> *Nous apprit l'art d'orner et d'habiller la terre.*"

He also recommends Wheatley's description of the wild and grand features of Middleton-dale, and Dove-dale, and terminates his poem with an *Eloge* on Captain Cook, our celebrated circumnavigator. Exclusively of these civilities, the doctrine which he endeavours to instil into the taste of his countrymen in laying out garden grounds is so entirely English, though the poetical dress is his own, that our taste ought to be flattered by this adoption, as much as by good translations of our best classical writers into the language of a foreign learned country.

This is "breaking ground at a great distance:" but we thought it necessary to say thus much respecting the original, in the way of preface to the present translation, before we entered on a discussion of its merits.

We have now to observe that this version, which is avowedly executed by a Lady, does great honour to her sex: for we scarcely remember to have seen, since the establishment of our *court of inquiry*, poetry translated with such exactness, facility, spirit, and elegance.

We cannot resist the pleasure of presenting to our readers

'THE TRANSLATOR'S PROLOGUE.

> 'While Genius smiles in deathless wreaths attired,
> And points the model Taste herself inspired,
> My timid numbers urge no boasting claim,
> Nor ask one laurel of immortal Fame;
> Destined alone to charm the curious ear
> Of youthful auditors, who pressed to hear
> Of scenes congenial with their artless age,
> Themselves unskilled to ken the foreign page,

Yet

Yet shall my cold, interpretative lays,
Be viewed with rapture, and be crowned with praise;
Oft when this heart no more shall joy, or grieve,
A grateful tribute from their lips receive;
Bid life's gay hopes a tear to Feeling spare,
In tender memory of a mother's care.
Till the wild flowers they place around my tomb,
Till they, so lovely now, no more shall bloom,
Oh Nature! guardian of maternal love,
Protect these numbers which thy influence prove;
No Muse from me, alas! her pride receives;
Deign Thou with myrtles to adorn my leaves.'

In our extracts from the poem itself, if we could afford sufficient space, it would be but just to insert the original of each passage with the English version: as, by comparison, the reader would perceive that a translation of prose into prose could hardly be more close and literal;—and that this is achieved without being either prosaic or laboured.

For instance, Chant 1. French, 4to. edit. p. 9.

" *Je dirai comment l'art dans de frais paisages*
Dirige l'eau, les fleurs, les gazons, les ombrages."

English, p. 1.

' I sing how art the imperfect landscape aids,
Directs the flowers, the water, lawns, and shades.'

French, p. 10.

" *N'empruntons point ici d'ornement étranger;*
Viens, de mes propres fleurs mon front va s'ombrager;
Et, comme un rayon pur colore un beau nuage,
Des couleurs du sujet je teindrai mon langage."

English, p. 2.

' Here let no borrowed ornaments be found,
With my own garlands be my temples bound;
As summer clouds are tinged by glowing rays,
The colours of my theme shall paint my lays.'

French, p. 11.

" *Et quand les dieux offroient un Elysée aux sages,*
Etoit-ce des palais? c'étoit de verds bocages;
C'étoit des prés fleuris, sejour des doux loisirs,
Où d'une longue pais ils goûtoient les plaisirs."

English, p. 3.

' And, when the good implored immortal powers,
They asked not grandeur, but Elysian bowers,
Free in cool shades and flowery meads to rove,
Eternal peace, and endless joys to prove.'

No pains were taken in selecting these passages; they were the first which we compared with the original; and, as we find the infusion equally correct and happy through all the

the four cantos of the poem, we shall now only cite the translation.

We think that the English taste in gardens is accurately described in the following passage:

'Insult not Nature with absurd expense,
Nor spoil her simple charms by vain pretence.
Weigh well the subject, be with caution bold,
Profuse of genius, not profuse of gold.
Less grand than lovely, decked with modest care,
A Garden one vast picture should appear.
See with a painter's eye. The fields array,
The numerous tints their varying hues display,
The gleams of light, the masses of the shade,
The changes by the hours and seasons made,
The bright enamel of the grass-clad ground,
The laughing hills with golden harvests crowned,
The rocks, the streams, the flowers, each varying tree,
These should your colours, canvas, pencils be;
Nature is yours, and your prolific hand
Must, to create, her elements command.'

The next ten lines, after having considered *the genius of the place* to be embellished, supply an admirable precept:

'But, ere you plant, ere your adventurous spade
In the maternal soil a wound has made,
To form your gardens with unerring taste,
Observe how Nature's choicest works are traced.
Oft as through unfrequented paths you rove,
What magic views your admiration move!
What fascinating scenes your steps arrest,
And with a pensive pleasure fill your breast!
From the most striking be your models drawn,
And learn of landscape, landscape to adorn.'

The following verses are an expansion of Pope's admirable counsel:

'On Imitation ills unnumbered wait
How to surmount or shun them, Muse! relate.
This rage too oft engenders forced effects.
Aim not at beauties which the soil rejects.
First to your site judiciously attend,
Consult its God, and to its Genius bend;
Their laws despised, how oft are scenes misplaced,
Disfigured, changed, by artists void of taste,
Who, by the beauties they absurdly choose,
Return to spoil in France Italian views.'

The subsequent passage, in which the author advises us to take lessons from painters, merit insertion equally for the original sentiment and its English dress:

'Aptly discover, boldly daring, seize
Whate'er your soil admits with grateful ease;

A grace

A grace adopted thus with happy skill,
Surpasses Nature, yet 'tis Nature still.
This choice made Berghem and Le Poussin shine;
Study, and emulate their works divine.
What landscape freely to the pencil lent,
Let Art pay Nature to its full extent.'

The succeeding beautiful lines and sentiments are translated almost verbatim, and are equal, if not superior, to the original:

'There are more pleasing cares, a happier art:
Charm not the eye alone, but touch the heart.
Have you the hidden sympathies between
Still life and animated beings seen?
Have you not heard, when fields and woods rejoice,
Their silent eloquence, their secret voice?
Give the effect. Mark too, from grave to gay,
From grand to simple, how we love to stray:
To please each taste, combine each varying style,
Spread gloom around, or bid the landscape smile;
There let the painter's touch new charms acquire,
Let Inspiration's breath the poet fire;
The sage in shades a calm retirement find,
And faithful Memory bless the happy mind;
There Love's pale votaries their vigils keep,
And there the wretched unmolested weep.'

At p. 17. we find old-fashioned French and Dutch gardening well stigmatized and discarded:

'Go to your antique mansions, there survey
Those studied nothings, those expensive toys,
Gay arbours, basons, runnels, naked boys;
The sums by Artifice there thrown away,
To gild a spot which pleases but a day,
Would dress a country if employed with sense:
Yield then to Genius false magnificence:
And to a garden changed let France one day
A second Eden to the world display.'

We dare not venture any farther into this more beautiful garden than that of Alcinous, from the allurements of which we already find it difficult to retreat: yet, during our captivity in these enchanted bowers, we have made a discovery which is not unpleasant to our feelings; and which is that, often as it has been insinuated (by authors whose works we have censured) that we have a malignant joy in condemning, we can assert *per contrà*, with the utmost truth, that our pleasure in bestowing praise, when clearly and indisputably due, as in the present case, affords us a delight which the castigation of dulness and absurdity never produced.

After

After all the well-merited encomiums which we have bestowed on this translation, we have a few slight defects to point out; which we cannot do without expressing our wonder that their number is so inconsiderable.

P. 67. Speaking of springs, and the circulation of water through a pleasure-ground, we find a line which is somewhat prosaic, and which might easily be amended:

'New life, new freshness, *every where* dispense.'

Suppose the distich were to run thus:

'And ye streams, rivers, lakes, and fountains, thence
New life, new freshness, at all points dispense?'

P. 73. 2d period, still speaking of water, a little prosaic harshness occurs in the four following lines:

'Such magic influence thy soft murmurs boast,
Kind stream, the *benefit* shall not be lost;
Preserving still the simple style I love,
Let me, *if possible*, thy charms improve.'

Would not these lines admit of the following change?

'Such magic influence thy soft murmurs boast,
Kind stream, nor shall *the enchanting boon be lost*;
Preserving still the simple style I love,
Each nerve I'll strain thy bounty to improve.'

P. 76. '*Importunates* the ear'. We fear that grammarians and philologers will not allow the adjective *importunate* to be converted into a verb. Perhaps the unwarrantable word may be avoided thus—

'*Offends the dainty* ear of captious taste.'

P. 77. Speaking of small projections of land breaking the strait line of a river or piece of water, 'advance into the waves' is harsh and heavy:—suppose the couplet ran thus:

'Now let the ground *obtrusive check* the waves,
Now yield them cool recesses, rocky caves.'

P. 107. We could wish that the expressions—*the art of gardening*—*and rich incidents*, were a little ennobled by more poetic language.

Perhaps in a 2d edit. the fair translatress, whose ingenious labours have so nearly approached perfection, may not deem these minute defects unworthy of a moment's consideration.

We ought not to conclude this article without taking notice of the beautiful manner in which this book is published: not only has the highest degree of excellence been attained as far as paper, types, and accuracy are concerned, but so exquisite are the embellishments, said to be invented by *Vieira* and *Bartolozzi*, that we should have supposed them, if anonymous, (like

(like the translation,) to have been designed by the elegant and admirable pencil of Lady Di. Beauclerc.

The engraving is by Bartolozzi, and in his best manner.

ART. VIII. *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. IV. 4to. Printed at Calcutta; 8vo. London, Vernor and Hood.

[*Article concluded from* p. 141.]

On the Traces of the Hindu Language and Literature extant among the Malays. By William Marsden, *Esq.*

ALL the late researches in India concur to prove the extensive diffusion and influence of the *Sanscrit*, or antient language of the Hindus. Many of the familiar and elementary words in the Malayse are clearly derived from that source. Those terms, too, are anterior to such as were introduced by the Mohammedan conquest, and betray their Arabic origin. It is not difficult to account for this, since a commercial intercourse has always subsisted between the Spice Islands and the manufacturing parts of India. The compositions of the Malays likewise bear evident marks of an acquaintance with the poetry and mythology of the Hindus.

On three natural Productions of Sumatra. By John Macdonald, *Esq.*

The first of these is *camphor*, which in its first stage is an essential oil, and becomes concreted only in the maturity of vegetation. The tree which produces this valuable drug has a thick trunk, and leaves resembling those of the bay; it is soft, and easily worked for domestic purposes. The method of collecting the camphor is thus accurately described:

'The *Sumatrans*, previous to their setting out in quest of camphor, assemble on the confines of the country they intend exploring, and discharge a variety of religious duties and ceremonies, calculated in their opinion, to promote the future success of their undertaking. They enter the woods, and, from experience, soon distinguish such trees as contain camphor. They pierce them, and if they yield oil plentifully, it is presumed they contain concreted camphor, which is found in small whitish flakes, situated, perpendicularly, in irregular veins, in and near the centres of the trees. The tree is cut down, divided into junks, and carefully divested of its camphor. When the oil has been drawn off from young trees, the camphor, which they afterwards afford, is of a less valuable nature, and is termed *belly* or *foot* camphor, in proportion to the degree of affinity it bears to *head*, or the best sort. When brought for sale, it is repeatedly soaked and washed in soapy water to separate from it all heterogenous and sandy particles, that may have adhered to it. When clean it will sink in water, and be of a white, glossy, smooth appearance, tending to transparency. After it has been washed, it is passed through three

three sieves of differing textures, so as to be divided into *head*, *belly*, and *foot* camphor: certain proportions of each compose the chests made up for the *China* market, where they are sold for 350 *l.* sterling, nearly. The *capoor* (a word of *Arabic* origin) *matee*, or dead camphor, is carefully separated from the three divisions, by an acuteness of distinction, acquired by the eye and hand from habit and attention, and, being mixed with the imperfect kind mentioned above, is pounded in a mortar and distributed among proportional quantities of foot camphor. This *capoor-matee* is sometimes procured by boiling down the thickest part of the oil, or by taking the sediment of the best oil, after it has settled at least twenty-four hours.'

The price of camphor must in time rise enormously, since scarcely one tree in three hundred is found to contain it. The oil, which is more easily procured, would probably serve as a substitute.

The next article is *the Coral of Sumatra*. The author, strangely enough, adopts the exploded opinion that corals are a sort of imperfect plants:—but, as Sir William Jones properly remarked, "it seems at length to be settled among naturalists, that corals and corallines are the cretaceous habitations of animals." In the Indian seas, as in the Pacific Ocean, there is a continual and rapid formation of coral rocks and islands. Mr. Macdonald gives some convincing observations of his own, respecting the growth of the shelves near the coasts of Sumatra.

The third production is *the Copper of Sumatra*. The ore is found over a considerable extent of the hills of *Mucchy*, near to the sea, and north of our extreme settlement of *Tappanooly*. A considerable quantity is annually collected on the surface, by the natives. Their mode of smelting is extremely simple: they choose a level spot of clay, in which they cut holes for receiving the fused metal; and having heated the ground intensely, in order to render it very dry, they heap up the ore intermingled with wood, charcoal, and other inflammable matters. The metal requires several smeltings to render it soft and ductile, and is found to contain a notable proportion of gold; which abounds so much in Sumatra.

On the Andaman Islands. By Lieut. R. H. Colebrooke.

We are sorry that our limits will not allow us to notice this paper so fully as it deserves. The islands which it describes lie on the east side of the Bay of Bengal. The Great Andaman is 140 miles in length and 20 in breadth; its coasts are indented with deep bays, affording excellent harbours. The interior of the country is covered with a variety of tall trees, darkened by the intermixture of creepers, parasite plants, and underwood; forming altogether a vast and almost impervious forest. The caverns on the shore give shelter to the birds that

build the edible nests, which fetch a very high price in the China market.

The inhabitants of these islands are but one degree removed from brutes. They go entirely naked, and live in huts the rudest and most wretched that can be imagined. Their colour is jet black, their stature small, and their aspect uncouth. They have slender mis-shapen limbs, prominent bellies, woolly heads, thick lips, and flat noses. Their moral characteristics are as repulsive as their physical qualities. The men, crafty and revengeful, testify an unconquerable aversion to strangers. Sometimes they dart a look of contempt and defiance, accompanied by every ferocious gesture. At other times, they will insidiously make a show of cordiality only to decoy their visitors to certain destruction. Absolutely without tillage, this savage race spend their days in the search of a scanty and wretched sustenance, and the heaviest part of the toil falls to the share of the women; yet both sexes are active, loquacious, and fond of singing and dancing.—A specimen of their vocabulary is subjoined.

On Barren Island, and its Volcano. By the same.

This singular island, of which a drawing is given, seems to owe its formation to a volcano which yet continues in a violent state of eruption.

On the Islands Nancowry and Comarty. By the same.

The space between these small islands forms an excellent and capacious harbour, of which the eastern entrance is protected by an islet, called *Trikut*, on which the Danes have long kept a petty garrison. These islands, which are nearly centrically situated among the Nicobar islands, are of rich soil, but mostly covered with wood. The few inhabitants whom they contain have their low villages ranged along the shore, with tall beacons in front, and a little advanced into the water. The *Nicobareans* resemble the *Malays* in their colour and features. They are robust but indolent, devolving the greatest part of the toil on the women, who are of much smaller stature than the men, and have their hair shaved or closely cropt. The most singular fact in the history of these people is an extraordinary ceremony which they perform annually in honour of the dead; and which we shall relate in the words of the intelligent author:

'On the anniversary of this festival, if it can be so called, their houses are decorated with garlands of flowers, fruits, and branches of trees. The people of each village assemble, drest in their best attire, at the principal house in the place, where they spend the day in a convivial manner; the men, sitting apart from the women, smoke tobacco.

tobacco and intoxicate themselves, while the latter are nursing their children, and employed in preparations for the mournful business of the night. At a certain hour of the afternoon, announced by striking the *Goung* *, the women set up the most dismal howls and lamentations, which they continue without intermission till about sun set; when the whole party gets up, and walks in procession to the burying ground. Arrived at the place, they form a circle around one of the graves, when a stake, planted exactly over the head of the corpse, is pulled up. The woman who is nearest of kin to the deceased, steps out from the crowd, digs up the scull †, and draws it up with her hands. At sight of the bones, her strength seems to fail her; she shrieks, she sobs; and tears of anguish abundantly fall on the mouldering object of her pious care. She clears it from the earth, scrapes off the festering flesh, and laves it plentifully with the milk of fresh cocoa nuts, supplied by the bystanders; after which she rubs it over with an infusion of saffron, and wraps it carefully in a piece of new cloth. It is then deposited again in the earth, and covered up; the stake is replanted, and hung with the various trappings and implements belonging to the deceased. They proceed then to the other graves, and the whole night is spent in repetition of these dismal and disgusting rites.

'On the morning following, the ceremony is concluded by an offering of many fat swine, when the sacrifice, made to the dead, affords an ample feast to the living; they besmear themselves with the blood of the slaughtered hogs, and some, more voracious than others, eat the flesh raw. They have various ways however of dressing their meat, but always eat it without salt. A kind of paste made of the *mellóri* serves them for bread, and they finish their repast with copious potations of *taury*.'

The Nicobareans are honest, hospitable, and strictly observant of truth. Their only vice (if what is accompanied with mirth and good-humour can deserve that name) is their fondness for intoxication.

An Account of the present State of Delhi. *By* Lieut. W. Francklin.

The ruins of the city of *Delhi*, the famed seat of Mussulman sovereignty in *Hindustan*, bespeak its antient opulence and splendour. They occupy a space of twenty miles in circuit, crowded with magnificent palaces and temples, with spacious gardens and country houses; and the whole had been watered

'* An instrument of brass somewhat like the *Gurry* of *Bengal*. Its sound is more hollow.'

'† We were present at the ceremony on the 1st of *February*, 1790, when the first scull we saw was that of a woman, who had been buried but a few months before. It was then dug up for the first time by her daughter. This office, we are told, is always performed by the women, which ever sex the scull belongs to. A man in a fantastic garb officiates as priest.'

by

by a noble canal. For the particulars, we must refer to the description; which appears to be accurate.

A Description of the Cuttub Minar. By Ensign James T. Blunt, *of the Engineers.*

This superb column consists of fine red granite, with flutings which correspond to a polygon base of twenty-seven sides, and has four balconies at different elevations. From the uppermost one, a pillar of white marble rises to the height of 40 feet, crowned with a spacious cupola. The whole height of the Cuttub Minar was found, by trigonometrical measurement, to be 242½ feet. This monument was erected by Cuttub Shaw, who reigned at Delhi between the years 1205 and 1210 of the Christian æra, and seems to have been designed for the minaret of a stupendous mosque, which was never completed.

Some Account of the Cave in the Island of Elephanta. By J. Coldingham, *Esq.*

The public already possess several accounts of this most antient and stupendous monument of the arts and industry, the mythology and religion, of the *Hindus*. The gigantic figures, with multiplied heads or limbs, are here carefully described; and our conceptions are assisted by drawings of the plan of the cave, and of the principal sculptures on the wall. For many particulars, see the 3d vol. of our General Index.

Extract from a Diary of a Journey over the Great Desart, from Aleppo to Bussora, in April 1782. *Communicated by Sir* William Dunkin, *and published with a View to direct the Attention of future Travellers to the Ruins described in it.*

At the distance of forty miles from Palmyra and fifty from the Euphrates, the travellers came to a place called *Castrohuoin* or *Calamy*, and were astonished on observing the ruins of magnificent structures. They saw first a square, each side of which was about 400 yards in length, and the walls 40 feet high, in many places entire. The front was composed of large blocks of marble exquisitely finished. The arches, columns, sculpture, and the whole architecture, were of the most delicate proportions, and not inferior to those represented in Wood's plates of the ruins of Palmyra.

A Dissertation on Semiramis, the Origin of Mecca, &c. From the Hindu Sacred Books. By Lieut. Francis Wilford.

We are here presented with a species of cosmogony which is not devoid of ingenuity and poetic fancy. The *Phallus* or *Linga*, the instrument and symbol of propagation, holds a conspicuous place in the mythological tales of the Hindus. *Sami-*

Rama, which from the derivation in *Sanscrit* signifies *Isis* dallying in the fir-tree, is plainly the *Semiramis* of antient Europe. *Mocshesa* or *Mocsha-st'han* is mentioned in the *Puranas* as a most holy place, and seems to have been no other than the present *Mecca*. The dove was worshipped in Arabia, Syria, and India; and it is related of Mohammed that, in the fervour of his zeal against idolatry, he raised Ali on his shoulders for the purpose of demolishing a wooden image of that bird, which stood in the temple of Mecca. The Hindus insist that the *black stone* in the wall of the *Caaba* was the *Linga* of *Mahadeva*. Unable, however, to compress an abstract of this learned paper, we recommend it to the perusal of our curious readers.

A Treatise on the Barometer. *By* Francis Balfour, *Esq.*

Why a few desultory remarks on the variations of the barometer are styled a *treatise*, we are at a loss to conceive. The author, who is a physician, some years ago wrote a book to prove that fevers are marked with diurnal and septennial periods *; and though the notion of celestial influences has been long exploded, he was desirous, in pursuance of his hypothesis, to inquire whether analogous changes do not occur in the atmosphere. The result of a month's observations was, that, in the interval between ten at night and six in the morning, and between ten in the morning and six in the evening, the mercury in the barometer falls somewhat; and that between six and ten in the morning, and between the same hours in the evening, there is generally a small rise. These are what the Doctor would call *diurnal* variations; and he expresses a hope that, if the register was extended, *septennial* variations would likewise appear. The steady climate of India would certainly be favourable for such observations: but fluctuations similar to the above have been remarked in Europe by Cotte Toaldo, Van Swinden, and others; and it is not difficult to assign an adequate cause, without having recourse to any new agency. It is enough to consider the heating and consequent rarefaction of the air during the progress of the day, modified by this circumstance, that the heat is principally excited at the surface, and is thence slowly communicated to the upper regions. The notion of the visible and immediate effect of the moon on the changes of the weather is, with few exceptions, confined to the vulgar.

Description of the Yak of Tartary, called Soora-Goy, or the Bushy-tailed Bull of Tibet. *By Lieutenant* Samuel Turner.

* See Rev. vol. lxxvi. p. 158.

This

This animal resembles the English bull in size and figure, but is covered with a thick coat of long hair, which in the tail is extremely bushy and flowing. It pastures on the short herbage of the coldest parts of Tibet, affords rich milk and excellent butter, and is of vast importance to the Tartars. Its skin is made into caps and jackets; its hair is manufactured into tents and ropes; and its profuse tail, under the name of *chowry*, is deemed throughout the East an article of luxury and parade.—An engraving accompanies the description.

On the Loris, or Slow-paced Lemur. By the President (Sir William Jones).

We must here refer the naturalist to the article itself.

On the Dhanésa, or Indian Buceros. By Lieut. Charles White, *communicated by Lieut.* Frazer.

This very singular bird feeds on the *nux vomica*. Its fat is esteemed highly medicinal by the natives.

Additional Remarks on the Spikenard of the Antients. By the President (Sir William Jones).

We cannot, for want of room, enter into the merits of this learned paper, which is chiefly a reply to what Dr. Blane had written on the subject. It maintains, with much appearance of evidence, that the true nard is not a fragrant grass, but a species of valerian, which grows in the remotest and hilly parts of India.

Botanical Observations on the Spikenard of the Antients; intended as a Supplement to the late Sir William Jones's *Papers on that Subject. By* William Roxburgh, *M. D.*

On the Plant Morinda, and its Uses. By William Hunter, *Esq.*

This plant, of which the root affords a colouring matter used for dyeing in the East, grows to a moderate-sized tree, called *Aal*. It is extensively cultivated in *Málava*, and is exported in large quantities to Guzerat and the northern parts of *Hindustan*. It requires a rich black soil, and a situation rather humid. In the third year after the seed is sown, the root is dug up.—Fixed with alum, it strikes a fine red, and, with the addition of martial vitriol, affords a chocolate colour.

PROSOPIS ACULEATA. KOENIG. *Tshámie of the Hindus of the Northern Circars. By Dr.* Roxburgh.

A Description of the Jonesia. By the same.

A Catalogue of Indian Plants, comprehending their Sanscrit and as many of the Linnean Generic Names as could with any Degree of Precision be ascertained. By the late President (Sir William Jones).

Botanical Observations on select Indian Plants. By the same.

The nature and extent of these papers oblige us to refer our botanical readers to the articles themselves. The last will be particularly acceptable to the curious in flowers, and indeed to all who have had the fortune of visiting the luxuriant climate of India.

We have now gone through the whole of this volume; and after the detailed account which we have given of its contents, it is scarcely necessary for us to remark on its aggregate value. Our readers will judge for themselves.

ART. IX. *Reports, with Plans, Sections, &c. of the proposed Dry Tunnel, or Passage, from Gravesend, in Kent, to Tilbury, in Essex;* demonstrating its Practicability, and great Importance to the two Counties, and to the Nation at large: also on a Canal from near Gravesend to Stroud. With some Miscellaneous and Practical Observations. By R. Dodd, Engineer. Illustrated with Plates. 4to. pp. 28. 5s. J. Taylor. 1798.

THE idea of forming a subaqueous communication between distant shores by a dry road, we believe, is perfectly new; and in many situations, where it is impracticable to erect a superstructure in the form of a bridge, or where the ferry is both uncertain and dangerous, a successful work of that kind must be of the greatest importance. Some of these impediments being found to exist on the Thames, about Gravesend, have given occasion to the present curious proposal; which has greatly excited the attention of the public, and has met with liberal encouragement from the neighbouring gentry. Mr. Dodd says, in his first report,

'The measure now projected, will save the necessity of passing by London bridge, and thereby a circuit of near 50 miles, independent of its giving ample opportunity for various establishments, and agricultural improvement; and I think it would argue an apathy not to be expected in the inhabitants of these two great counties, not to pursue the important benefits to be obtained from this scheme, so reciprocally advantageous to each county: certainly any neglect must call loudly for censure; for where two counties of such magnitude can be joined at so small an expence, it ought not to be omitted, as it will add to their commerce, population, and convenience.

'Probably the hand of Nature never formed a better situation for this purpose, than at or near Gravesend, on the river Thames, from the eligibility of the shores on both sides the river, and the apparent rock of chalk to pass through. I should recommend the form of this passage or tunnel to be cylindrical, wholly made with key-stones; therefore the greater the pressure the stronger will be the work; having

having a diameter of 16 feet in the clear, which will be a sufficient width for foot, horse, and carriage passengers; to be illuminated with lamps, and a steam engine to draw its drainage water, if necessary. Upon this scale, I shall give a general estimate from ocular observations.

'I conceive that 900 yards of tunnelling will be sufficient for passing under the bed of the river, and keeping each of its extremes at a proper distance from the banks; at what depth it must pass under the bed of the river, can only be determined by our borings hereafter, made in an actual survey, to determine its strata, &c.'

Subsequently to that survey, he continues;

'I shall now proceed to give some general remarks respecting the practicability and execution of this novel and interesting scheme. The length of the line is 900 yards, which will pass from about 20 to 30 feet below the bed of the river; the depth of water in the deepest parts above the tunnel, is 11 fathom, or 66 feet, in the highest equinox spring tides; therefore the crown of the arch may be considered as not exceeding 96 feet, from the summit water-line, which will produce an inclination from an horizontal line of nearly 4 inches in a yard. The tunnel may be constructed either of stone or brick; the lower segment of which will of course be the first executed, and the upper one from centres of a proper figure; the whole wrought in terrass, and sufficiently bedded in clay, to admit no water; and for greater security, we proceed with a small part at a time, that we may not too much disturb the strata in working. When the entire circle is completed by the workmen, it will be of a strength superior to the original bed of chalk we pass through: from the actual borings made to determine the strata, I find we have to pass nearly the whole way through chalk; but some small portion of the way, on the Essex side, through an excellent clay, mixed in some places with a portion of petrified vegetable substances, covered over, beyond high-water-mark, with a few feet of rich loamy mould; but on the Kentish shore, a solid chalk rock presents itself to the surface.'

The following observations on tunnels also occur:

'It is worth while here to remark the grand utility of this tunnel, by opening extensive roads in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Kent, and Sussex; and that its extremities are near to the points of the great leading north and south roads of Kent and Essex. This communication, when once completed, will be superior to any bridge, as from its strength and durability it would require little repair for ages. As to the practicability of its execution, it cannot admit a doubt, if we adopt the old adage, that what has been done, may be done again. I have already mentioned that excavations or passages are made under the sea at Whitehaven for upwards of one mile in length, and on a much larger scale than necessary for this proposed tunnel; add to these, those passing under the rivers Wear and Tyne, as adopted by the coal-miners for the purpose of passing coal from one side of the river to the other. Necessity gave rise to these inventions, from the cause of working out the coal on one side, and then driving a tunnel or drift to the other; by which means, they

obtained coal from the opposite side, without being at the expence of making shafts for raising it. The first circumstance that I recollect of this nature, took place at Wylam colliery, on the river Tyne, some years ago; since which period the whole of the coal has been wrought on the south side, and passed through a tunnel under the river, and brought up the shaft to the bank on the north side. Within these few months, the extensive colliery of Walkers, so well known for the superior quality of coal it sends to the London market, has adopted a similar measure.

The earliest tunnel that we have account of for the purpose of inland navigation, was executed by that able engineer, Mons. Riquet, to convey the canal of Lanquedoc through a mountain near Beziers. It is cut into a lofty arcade, and the greatest part of the way lined with free-stone, except towards the ends, where it is only hewn through the rock, which is of a soft sulphurous substance.

The first executed in this country was by the ingenious Mr. Brindley, on his Grace the Duke of Bridgewater's navigation near Manchester: the next noticed is the justly celebrated tunnel of Harecastle Hill in Staffordshire, executed also by Mr. Brindley; its length is 2,880 yards, and passes more than 70 yards below the surface of the earth; it is carried through a variety of strata, quicksands, &c. The above tunnel was executed to pass a canal through it, from the Trent to the Mersey, called the Grand Trunk Canal.

The tunnel of Saperton was carried through two miles of solid rock; its extreme length is two miles and three quarters; it was executed for the purpose of conveying an inland navigation through it, and thereby unite the river Thames and the Severn. Many other tunnels have since been executed in this country; and some are now doing with equal success for the purpose of inland navigation. The great drift or tunnel, about four miles above Newcastle, from the banks of the river Tyne to near Kenton, which was finished last year, is three miles and a quarter in length, great part of which was, with very great labour, perforated through a hard rock of whin-stone, nearly equal in density to the hardest flint; it is made for the express purpose of passing waggons laden with coal: notwithstanding the almost impenetrable strata, and the magnitude of the work, the whole was executed in about four years, and at less expence than persons unacquainted with such works can conceive.'

Some practical directions are also given respecting the method of obviating the baneful effects of fire damps and noxious airs, during the execution of the underground works.

Mr. Dodd professes to have written these reports so as to be generally comprehended, and has for that purpose avoided all technical terms and mathematical demonstrations: but we must suppose that he is prepared with such documents; as likewise with a mode of forming a previous duct for the clearance of any accidental water that may enter during the progress of the work. We conclude that such satisfactory testimonials have been presented to those who patronise the undertaking; since

since we have been informed, by public advertisement, that all the money required has been liberally subscribed; and that a bill is now pending in parliament to empower them to carry the proposal into execution.—A Report respecting a canal in the neighbourhood of Gravesend, and projects of similar tunnels in other parts of England, are added by way of elucidating the benefits which, Mr. Dodd thinks, may be attained by such undertakings.

As a preliminary report on the general outline of the intended work, we think that this publication furnishes ample materials for consideration, on a novel and very important subject; and we have no doubt that, being the projector, Mr. Dodd will meet with all due encouragement, and that proper allowance will be made for the correction of several imperfections which naturally attach to the first design of a new scheme.

ART. X. *Observations on the intended Tunnel beneath the River Thames*, shewing the many Defects in the present State of that Projection. By Charles Clarke, F. S. A. 4to. pp. 25. 2 Plates. 4s. sewed. Robinsons, &c. 1799.

MR. Dodd has here met with a severe opponent, who attacks him at all points. The novelty of the scheme, indeed, prompts those who are ingenious in that branch of science to the exercise of their investigating talents; which we wish to see pursued in this case, as the most likely means of arriving at safe conclusions respecting works which have hitherto escaped attention.

Mr. Clarke commences his remarks with giving some simple modes of considering the effects of *ponderal* powers, as they are usually disposed about arches of the common application: leading to those solutions with which the public have long been satisfied from several able hands. In subterraneous or subaqueous structures, however, it remains to be considered how far these calculations apply; where the arch must be particularly influenced by the surrounding soils. Hard stone, and moderately firm clay, resist differently:—the first will support itself in a perpendicular direction; whereas the latter will spred or bulge in every way, in proportion to the weight upon it. The several materials should therefore be considered according to their respective degrees of solidity; from such as cannot be compressed by any common weight, to that of verging towards a fluid state: for it is evident that a solid body will not press against an upright wall which may be built against it: but, in proportion as the soil to be passed through is soft, or approxi-

mates to a fluid, it will undoubtedly require an appropriate disposition in the tunnel to resist it in every direction. The line of the proposed tunnel, we are informed by Mr. Dodd's report, does pass through two very different materials: the one a chalk and the other a clay. The proper procedure would therefore be, first to ascertain the just resistances which the respective soils require; and then to consider what form would best apply to the place in question.

Mr. Clarke has stated an observation which well merits the attention of those who are in the practice of constructing arches. After having cited acknowleged authorities respecting the strength of timber in different positions, he supposes (with Mr. Emerson) that the same mode 'is equally applicable to any solid bodies acted on in like manner;'—'and we may rest pretty well satisfied, till it may be thought worthy to make a course of experiments immediately to the purpose, that an arch of two bricks thick, unbonded, is but twice as strong as an arch of one; and of three, but possessed of three times that strength: whereas, if bonded, the degrees of strength would be as the squares of those numbers, and be represented by 1, 4, 9.' It may likewise be added that a farther weakness results from the repetition of arches immediately over each other; that, if a defect should happen in the superior one, a partial weight is thrown on some particular part of the arch beneath, and renders it even weaker than if no arch were above it; and such must generally be expected to be the case, as it is very difficult to construct two arches which shall settle equally.

Objections to most parts of Mr. Dodd's proposal are detailed by Mr. Clarke, who seems throughout to be averse from the scheme. He has nevertheless presented, at the end of this work, one which he thinks superior for the intended purpose.

We are not disposed, in this place, to enter much at length into an investigation of this novel subject: but we hope to see it discussed by those whose abilities and time permit them to give it ample consideration. Respecting the two schemes presented to the public, the question to be decided is whether, in the relative situation, a preference should be given to Mr. Dodd's proposal of a cylindrical tunnel, or to Mr. Clarke's perpendicular side-walls supporting an arch of equilibration.

ART.

ART. XI. *The Principles of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.* In Four Volumes 8vo. Printed at Cambridge.

VOL. III. * Part I.

The Principles of Mechanics: Designed for the Use of Students in the University. By James Wood, B. D. Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Wingrave, Elmsley, Wilkie, &c. London. 1796.

VOL. III. Part II.

The Principles of Hydrostatics: Designed for the Use of Students in the University. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Wingrave, Elmsley, Wilkie, &c. London. 1796.

IN addition to the great advancements made during late years in the pure science of quantity, by inventing and perfecting several branches of Analysis, that part of mathematics which is denominated *the mixed* is derived almost exclusively from the genius and labours of the geometricians who have flourished since the sixteenth century; though Archimedes, it is true, has left two treatises, one *De Planorum Equilibriis*, the other *De iis quæ in humido vehuntur.*

The first great steps towards a progress in the mixed mathematics were made by Stevin and Galileo; the former discovered the important proposition of the composition of motion, and the latter investigated the laws of acceleration of falling bodies: afterward, Huygens, Wren, and Wallis, invented the theory of percussion. It is needless here to particularize the labours of those great men who have adorned this and the preceding age; suffice it to say that, in the general progression of the sciences, that of mechanics advanced with great and rapid strides. Yet it has not been exempted from that fatality which appears to attend on every science; it has not received, with an augmentation of its mass, a proportional elucidation of its principles. Its cultivators have been ambitious rather of the admiration than of the gratitude of mankind; have been emulous of augmenting the superstructure, not of clearing the entrance; and have added to the height, when they might have been more usefully employed in giving stability to the foundations.

It is to be remarked, however, that, if the science of mechanics has not been free from that ill-fortune which has been common to all others, it has from its nature derived a

* Two preceding volumes of this work, on Algebra and Fluxions, were noticed in our 23d vol. p. 188. We have waited thus long for the remaining volume, on Optics and Astronomy, but must not farther delay the present article.

great

great and peculiar advantage; as, next to geometry, it is the most certain science, because the most simple in its object;—and to the simplicity of its object, geometry is indebted for its certainty; being a science which contemplates only one of the properties of matter, namely extension. By restoring to matter another of its properties, impenetrability, (that property of a body which excludes every other from occupying its place,) motion is produced; and the investigation of the laws of motion, thus produced, is properly the object of the science called Mechanics. By restoring to matter others of its properties, new circumstances and new principles are introduced; the object of the science becomes more complicated, the science itself less perspicuous and certain; and if, in the hypothesis of a physical problem, we were to estimate all the circumstances which actually present themselves, the solution would bid defiance to the utmost labour and refinement of calculation *.

"*Gloriatur Geometria* (says the immortal author of the *Principia*) *quod tam paucis principiis aliunde petitis, tam multa præstet*;" yet few authors seem to have attended to the *cause* of the excellence of geometry; or, in other words, they have not given fecundity to the principles of a science, by reducing their number;—that is, by shewing that some are useless, as operating to no end,—some obscure by the use of words to which there is no precise meaning,—some merely deductions from previous and more simple principles.

The Three Laws of Motion are said to contain the principles of mechanics; and, as the application of Calculus, in an elementary treatise like the present, is an object of inferior concernment, our attention will be principally directed to the arguments by which these laws are established. We wish, however, previously to remark that in Sect. 1. the definitions of such words as extension, solidity, mobility, divisibility, &c. might have been omitted, because *no use* is afterward made of such definitions; that in page 8. Art. *Inactivity*, the reasoning is vague and the conclusion is precipitate; and that in page 16. Art. 25, the object of the proof is not attained, because it does not appear from the experiment that such a power as *Inertia* exists *at all*.

* It may not be improper, in this place, to remark that authors, in comparing the conclusion of a physical problem with the result from experiment, do not state with sufficient precision the principles on which the solution is founded, and the circumstances under which the experiment is instituted. Were this done, it would appear whether the difference between the results from theory and experiment were adequate to the deviation of the hypothesis from the actual state of the circumstances which occur and operate in nature.

We

We now proceed to Sect. 2. *On the Laws of Motion.*

The laws of motion are said to be propositions intermediate between geometry and philosophy, through which Mechanics becomes a mathematical branch of physics; and to be such in their nature, that, although not truths of intuition, they are truths suggested by the constant and uniform testimony of our senses. It may not be amiss to recall these laws to our reader's recollection.

1st Law. Every body perseveres in its state of rest, or in an uniform motion in a right line, until a change is effected by the agency of some external force.

2d Law. Any change effected in the quiescence or motion of a body is in the direction of the force impressed, and is proportional to it in quantity.

3d Law. Action and re-action are equal, and in contrary directions.

The argumentation used by Mr. Wood to establish the truth of these laws is similar in kind to that which was adopted by Sir Isaac Newton; and therefore Mr. W. stands under the shelter of a mighty authority: yet, as in philosophical inquiry we claim the privilege of following reason, and not authority, we may examine whether the argumentation has that perspicuity, that precision, and that force, which it ought to have, in order to satisfy the mind on so important a point as the truth of the principles of a science.—The basis on which the truth of the 1st law is made to rest is observation or experiment.* : yet, so far is common and daily observation from confirming the truth, that thence is rather to be inferred a tendency in motion to relax and decrease; and if it be allowed that motion becomes more uniform and rectilinear, in proportion as the causes of retardation and deviation are diminished, still the proof wants that degree of evidence which is necessary to convince the understanding. Hence *Inertia* (for by this property of body is motion uniform and rectilinear) has been proved by some eminent mathematicians, in a method different from the one above mentioned; a method which, although it possesses not mathematical exactness, is independent of experiment, and has some title to the merit of logical precision and connection. It may be stated in the following manner:—

A body at rest cannot give motion to itself; and therefore, if drawn into motion, it must be so by the action of some extraneous force; whence, perhaps, it follows that a body put in

* "*Projectilia perseverant in motubus suis, nisi quâtenus à resistentiâ aeris retardantur, et vi gravitatis impelluntur deorsum. Trochus, cujus partes perpetuò retrahunt sese à motibus rectilineis, non cessat rotari, nisi quâtenus ab aere retardantur.*" &c. *Principia.*

motion by some cause cannot of itself either accelerate or retard that motion:——but more formally and fully thus—

Suppose a body in motion, and that the instantaneous action of the moving force is adequate to make the body describe a certain space, then, since after the first instant the moving force ceases, and the motion still continues, it must be uniform, because the body cannot of itself either accelerate or retard it;—the motion will moreover be rectilinear, for there is no reason why the body should deviate to the right rather than to the left; and hence, in this case, where the body is capable of moving, during a certain time and independently of the moving cause, the motion will be uniform and rectilinear.

A body, however, which can move itself uniformly and in a straight line during a certain time, will perpetually move itself after the same manner:—for, suppose a body capable of describing uniformly a straight line, of which the two extremities are A and B, between A and B take two points C and D, then the body at D is precisely in the same state as when at C, excepting that it is in a different place. Therefore the same ought to happen to the body as when at C: but, by hypothesis, when at C it can move itself uniformly to B; therefore when at D it will be liable to move itself uniformly to a point G, taking D G=C B, and so on for ever, &c.*

In a similar manner, may be proved the uniform and rectilinear motion, on the hypothesis that the body to be moved has need of the constant action of the moving force †.

This proof is founded on a rule which is frequently expressed by the words "*ob defectum sufficientis rationis.*" The sufficient reason is by no means to be considered as an unintelligible and mysterious principle, but rather as a concise mode of reasoning.

The Second Law of Motion, as stated, affords the mind no neat and precise idea. In its developement, it is said 'that when any alteration takes place in the cause, there will be a proportional and corresponding alteration in the effect produced.' Now, although this reasoning appears plausible, and in the garb of a philosophical language; yet, if we strictly examine what we understand by *cause and effect*, it will appear that, instead of clear and precise notions, we obtain little

* The point D is between C and B, and the point G by consequence is beyond B.

† As a *proof of a principle* involves a contradiction, all that can be expected to be done, in establishing a principle, is to give sufficient developement to that reasoning which renders its truth probable; and, by the use of words with a definite signification, to offer it to the mind in a clear and precise manner.

more than mere words in current payment. For instance, when motion is produced, force is said to be the cause; now of forces there are only two kinds, those which operate like gravity and those which act by impulsion. In regard to forces of the first kind, they are only known to us by their effects. If the effects be unknown, so are the causes: but, if the effects be known, any question about the causes is useless, since it is the effects which we are to compare together. In regard to forces of the second kind, the cause can only be the body in motion which strikes another, and produces what is called the effect; yet, if the product of the mass of the moving body by any function of its velocity be assumed as the *cause*, it may be proved that the *effect* in the body impelled is not proportional thereto. It is matter of wonder that the plausible doctrine about cause and effect should have been adopted by mathematicians; whose concern is about effects which are capable of being represented and treated as quantity,—and not about their causes, which are truly of a metaphysical nature, and as such not objects of mathematical inquiry.

The principle contained in this Second Law, and which is of use to demonstrate the proposition of the composition of motion is this; that the action of a force on a moving body is the same as on the body at rest, estimating the action by the effect produced in a given time.

Third Law—Action and Re-action, &c. By action is here meant momentum generated in a given time; and for the truth of this law, says our author, recourse must be had to experiment. We by no means dispute the truth of this law, but object to the mode of establishing it. It is desirable to render a science as little a science of experiment as possible; instead, therefore, of setting out from a principle of experiment, 'that two bodies meeting each other in opposite directions, with velocities inversely as their masses, will after impact remain at rest,' we should endeavour to deduce this principle from a more simple one; and a case which manifests itself in a clear and distinct manner to the mind is this:—that two bodies of equal masses, with equal and contrary velocities, will after impact be at rest. From this simple and self-evident proposition, may be deduced the equilibria of unequal bodies meeting in opposite directions with velocities inversely proportional to their masses; and this deduction will be of no very great difficulty, when the bodies are commensurable: but, when the bodies are incommensurable, the proof must be by a *reductio ad absurdum*,—to effect which this must be admitted, that two bodies after impact will not remain at rest, if one moving with any velocity (a) strikes another equal to it and at rest.

Sect.

Sect. 3d. (p. 33.) *On the Composition and Resolution of Motion.* The demonstration adopted by Mr. Wood is similar to that given by Sir I. Newton, and depends on the principle contained in the second law of motion. The demonstration of this important proposition is not without its difficulties. The only clear case of the composition of motion is when two uniform forces continually act on the body: but, when two forces impress motions on a body, and abandon it entirely, the demonstration is embarrassed. The object of the mathematician's endeavour should be to reduce the latter case to the first.

Mr. W. afterward proceeds to demonstrate the composition of forces. The thing required to be proved here is, in fact, that a body acted on by three forces, which are to another as the sides of a triangle, will be kept at rest. We do not object to the truth of the proposition, but to the mode of its proof; which, according to Mr. W., is from the composition of motion;—and we object for this plain and obvious reason, that wherever there is an equilibrium there is no motion, and by consequence the principle of the demonstration is foreign to the nature of the thing to be demonstrated *.

Sect. 4. *On the Mechanical Powers; and first on the Lever.*—Mr. Wood's demonstration of the properties of the lever is in the manner of Archimedes; and the demonstration of Archimedes, as we stated in the review of a former work †, is liable to objection: to obviate which, Mr. W. prefixes one proposition and three axioms.

Axiom 1. If two weights balance each other on a straight lever, the pressure on the fulcrum is equal to the sum of the weights, whatever be the length of the lever.

Axiom 2. If a weight be supported on a lever which rests on two fulcrums, the pressure on the fulcrums is equal to the whole weight.

Axiom 3. Equal forces acting perpendicularly, at the extremities of equal arms of a lever, exert the same effort to turn it round.

It is remarkable that no use is made by Mr. W. (as far as we can see) of the first axiom; which, although true as appears by experiment, otherwise does not manifest itself to the

* Our sentiments on this point are sanctioned by great authority. "*Hactenus à nemine demonstrata fuit compositio virium, quam ex compositione motus quod demonstrandi genus tametsi receptum à viris summis, veluti Newtono, Varignonio, aliisque: minime tamen rigore geometrico munitum est, propositionemque non aliter quam contingenter veram reddit.*" &c. D. Bernouilli.

† Dr. Hutton's Mathematical Dictionary; see Rev. vol. xxv. p. 184. 364.

mind

mind in a clear and satisfactory manner; if, however, it be granted, then can the properties of the lever be deduced, and with facility, if its arms be to one another as number to number. It is on the second axiom that our author builds his demonstration; which, however, we cannot allow to be either perspicuous or satisfactory. As a diagram is necessary, we are unable to state where the demonstration wants perspicuity, and in what it seems deficient from obtaining its object. In the review of Dr. Hutton's Dictionary above mentioned, we gave the preference to Newton's demonstration of the lever: but one great objection is that it fails in the most simple case; that is, when the lever is straight and the powers are parallel.

Our observations are already so much extended, that we must refrain from any farther investigation: but we will just advert to the mode in which Mr.W. demonstrates the two important propositions, that the spaces vary as the squares of the times, and that the space described by a body falling from a state of rest, by the action of an uniform force, is half the space described by the body moving uniformly with the last acquired velocity in the same time. This mode is by introducing a case of one body ascending while the other descends, and is objectionable inasmuch as it is indirect. What is the object of proof? The laws that *falling* bodies observe. It is surely then departing very widely from the natural and obvious path of investigation, to introduce a case of *ascending* bodies. The demonstration of Galileo is direct and perspicuous. It introduces into the science no new or foreign principle, but is built on those two fundamental truths, that a body by its *vis inertia* describes a right line uniformly, and that, in the same time, the effect of gravity is the same on a body, with whatever velocity it moves.

"*Nous nous sommes un peu etendus sur ce sujet*," as the French authors express themselves. We have indeed consulted not so much the size of the work before us, as the weight and worth of its subject. The great aim of our criticism has been to shew the necessity of first attending to the fundamental principles of a science; of what nature they ought to be, and in what manner they ought to be developed or established: next, to the structure of the science; how its several parts should have their gradation, dependence, and connexion, so that the system, through all its varieties, may be always traced back to the simplicity of its first plan. In our partial observations, we have objected to the mode of demonstrating the laws of motion, because mechanics should be rendered as little as possible a science of experiment; and we have objected

to

to the mode of demonstrating the laws of falling bodies, because the connexion between the several parts of a science should be natural and intimate. To what we have already said, we may add that, in a systematic treatise, a demonstration is not always to be admitted, though recommended by superior perspicuity and conciseness; for we must examine whether it assimilates with the other parts of the system, or forms a proper link in the chain of propositions;—and that a demonstration is not necessarily concise because it employs few words or signs; it may be so to the eye, but not really to the mind; which from the first truth proceeds step by step to the last, and, if any be deficient, must supply them before its progress can be continued. The desire of conciseness operates on science with a baneful influence; to attain it, much good is sacrificed, and much error introduced; and frequently it is not really attained, for it is only by an abuse and perversion of terms, that those demonstrations can be called concise which take for granted what should be proved, or omit what is necessary to be inserted. True metaphysical conciseness is inseparable from perspicuity; its essence is to employ only the necessary number of ideas, and to dispose them in the most natural order.

After these particular observations, it appears unnecessary to give our formal judgment of the work. Yet, considered as a treatise designed to explain the principles of mechanics, we think that it wants precision and copiousness *; and the author has not availed himself of all the improvements which time and genius have given to science:—but perhaps it may be said that it is unreasonable to expect what was never intended; that the work was designed for the use of young students, and as such leans purposely to the familiarity of illustration, rather than to the rigour of demonstration; and that its object was to impress a certain number of truths, without regarding whether they were derived from experiment or from logical or mathematical deduction,—whether they were truths of the same family and kindred, or independent of and alien to each other. What is first learnt, it is true, is learnt but imperfectly and vaguely; yet surely it ought not so to be taught: on the contrary, there should be an accurate standard, at which the student might continually adjust his imperfect conceptions.

"*Oportet discentem credere*," in the study of mathematics especially, enjoins implicit faith; the student suspects every thing rather than that his author is wrong, and will suffer the utmost

* We need not explain how a work may want both these seemingly contradictory qualities.

torture

torture of perversion, in order to fit his own notions to the standard which he finds prepared. For this reason, we feel very sensibly the justness of that other maxim, "*Oportet edoctum judicare.*" What right we have to assume it, and with what success we have acted on it, the public must determine.

We come now to Mr. Vince's *Principles of Hydrostatics.*—In the course of our preceding remarks, we stated that the certainty of a science depended on the simplicity of its object; and that, consequently, the sciences which treat of the several classes of Phænomena will have different degrees of evidence and exactness. In some, the principles may be obscure; in others, so numerous that the application of calculus to them becomes a matter of the utmost difficulty. We likewise observed that our first and chief concern ought to be directed to the fundamental truths of a science; and that these should be as sure and as simple as possible. Yet simplicity of principles is in many instances unattainable: for what is a simple principle? a truth suggested by the contemplation of the nature of an object of which we are to investigate the properties. Hence the nature of the object must be known; for instance, in fluids, the form, arrangement, density, and mutual action of the particles, must be known, before we can presume to lay down any principles which the mind can receive as clear or satisfactory:—but our knowlege of the form, arrangement, &c. of the particles is so imperfect, that we are unable to propose any principles of the above kind. Every science, however, must have its basis; and the fundamental truth in the doctrine of fluids is, *The Equality of the Pressure of Fluids in every Direction.* This fundamental property of fluids rests entirely on experiment, and must necessarily do so; since, being ignorant of the *nature* of fluids, we are unable to obtain any principles on which we might otherwise establish its truth.

From this property of fluids, may be rigorously deduced all that concerns their equilibrium. In attempting, however, to obtain the laws according to which fluids resist, many and great difficulties present themselves;—so great, that to subdue them came not within the compass even of the sagacity and invention of a Newton:—but the difficulties, which this philosopher could not overcome, others have found means to evade. Influenced by the spirit of calculation, they have endeavoured to submit nature to the control of geometry. In the choice of an hypothesis, they have not been inquisitive about the true one, but have adopted that which was convenient for the operation and methods of analysis; and, in the

last act of error and precipitation, they have raised algebraic formulas to the dignity of physical truths.

It may not here be unimportant to observe how necessary it is to keep distinct those two objects, *the invention of principles* and *the application of calculus*, if we wish truly to interpret nature. Principles ought to be sought, as if they never were to become the data of a problem: but, if their certainty be sacrificed to the facility of calculation, it ought to be no cause of wonder that the conclusions from theory do not agree with the results from actual experiments. The research is of pure curiosity, but not applicable to nature. Hence it is that what has been written on the resistance of fluids tends very little to explain the phænomena, since the hypothesis generally used is not exact; for it supposes that the particles of the fluid, after having stricken a body, are annihilated, or reflected in such a manner as not to impede the action of any other particles. Hence likewise it is that the investigation, in the 34th proposition of the 2d book of the *Principia*, concerning the resistance of globe and cylinder, is merely speculative. What is determined in the remaining part of the section, concerning this resistance, is more conformable to experience; yet many parts of the hypothesis are liable to great objections.

The distribution of Mr. Vince's treatise is into the following heads:

'On the Pressure of Non-elastic Fluids—On the Specific Gravities of Bodies—On the Resistance of Fluids—On the Times of emptying Vessels, and on Spouting Fluids—On the Attraction of Cohesion, and on Capillary Attraction—On Elastic Fluids—On the Barometer—On the Air-Pump and Condenser—On Pumps and Syphons—On the Thermometer, Hygrometer, and Pyrometer—On Winds, Sound, Vapours, and the Formation of Springs.'

The demonstrations in the first section differ but little from those generally found in books of this nature. A very excellent observation is, however, made in Prop. 12. on the coincidence of the centers of pressure and percussion.

In Sect. 3. the author has very properly stated why the results from theory do not agree with experiment;—and in Section 4th, *On Emptying Vessels*, his observations are judicious, and worthy of notice. His explanations of the philosophical instruments are made with considerable perspicuity.

The plan of the present work resembles that of Roger Cotes* on the same subject, in which mathematical demonstrations and experimental processes are mixed together; and such a plan

* Hydrostatical and Pneumatical Lectures: written on account of experiments made by the author in a professorial capacity.

we cannot much approve. We have before stated that a distinction should be made between what is proved mathematically and what is shewn experimentally. It ill accords with the proper arrangement of a scientific work, to make the mathematical proof of the equilibrium of liquors in a syphon, the experiment by which it appears that the air has weight; and to make the mechanical construction of an hygrometer belong to the same class of propositions. The peculiar excellence of mathematical science consists in the connection between its several truths. Hence every thing that stands single and insulated, and is foreign, should be excluded.—We by no means pretend to assert that it is always practicable for a scientific treatise to consist of an unbroken series of propositions dependent on each other, and having one simple truth as their common origin; yet, as it is desirable to make a performance conform as nearly as possible to this ideal model of excellence, care should be taken to exclude every thing which either depends from a new principle, or is established on a distinct basis, or leans on a foreign support.

We imagined that we should have been able to have found a proper test to try the excellence of the present work, by inquiring what was its specific design, or proposed usefulness:—but we have not been able to satisfy ourselves. Was it intended for a physical-mathematical treatise; in which, by applying the methods of analysis to principles clearly ascertained, conclusions might be drawn, and their conformity to experiments shewn? Was it intended as a popular philosophical treatise? or was its object to offer a certain number of truths without regard to their nature, the manner of establishing them, or to their order and connection? We can be justified in answering in the affirmative only to the latter question; yet here, if we do not deny the author's success in attaining his object, we cannot applaud the choice of that object.

On the whole, we hope that the execution of the remaining volume will correspond more nearly to the high idea which we entertain, and have expressed, of this author's merit*, and will more fully justify the confidence reposed in his abilities by an illustrious and learned University.

* See our account of Mr. Vince's Astronomy (Rev. October last); which, if the 2d volume equals the first, will be by far the most excellent work of its kind in our language.

ART. XII. *Sermons on select Subjects.* By Thomas Scott, Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 8vo. pp. 458. 6s. Boards. Jordan.

BY some divines, the joint reverence of revelation and of reason is thought to be as completely incompatible as the love of God and the love of Mammon. In their zeal for the former, they often so undervalue and vilify the latter, that they would incline us to regard it as the gift of some malignant demon, rather than as a benign ray darted into the human breast from the bright source of Eternal Intelligence. This ardor for revelation may be well meant, but it is not well considered. The depreciation of the intellectual powers of man is not the mode by which revelation proceeds to recommend itself; and it is one which, we are persuaded, its modern advocates and apologists would not employ, if they reflected more on the subject. The very wisdom of making a revelation to a race of creatures must depend, in the first instance, on their having capacity sufficient to discern the fitness and reasonableness of it, and to improve by it. Revelation itself, therefore, is the greatest possible compliment to Reason, in being a declaration,—a demonstration,—of its capacity; for no religious mind could tolerate such a reflection on the Deity, as to suppose that he would cause a revelation of the most important religious and moral truths, to creatures who were naturally incapable of religious and moral discernment. Revelation is chargeable with no such absurdity. Christ commands us to *search* and to *see*, and Paul desires us to *judge*. Besides, the instructions of revelation are not elementary: they imply previous instructions from an inferior source; they carry us farther than reason goes, but do not render its preparatory lessons and assistance unnecessary. Its twilight is neither useless nor unacceptable, before the sun of revelation arises.

Had Mr. Scott duly considered the subject in this point of view, we apprehend that his good sense would have restrained him from those strong and unqualified attacks on *natural religion*, which are exhibited in the beginning of this volume. In the first sermon, he tells us that it is a *vain thing*; and that 'reason untutored by revelation *uniformly* leads men into atheism, idolatry, or enormous wickedness.' Is this correct? Is not enormous wickedness in men imputable to their passions rather than to their reason? If reason uniformly leads to atheism and idolatry, could idolatry be imputed to any nation as a crime, when not enjoying the advantages of a revelation? Without employing any reasoning in defence of reason, we would farther ask, is Mr. Scott's representation of the natural tendency of reason towards atheism and idolatry, reconcileable with Paul's

account, (Rom. i. 20, 21.) that the eternal power and godhead of the Deity are deducible by the faculties of men from the works of the visible creation?—or with his statement in chap. ii. 14. that "*the Gentiles which have not the law are a law to themselves?*" which Taylor thus paraphrases: "though they have no written law, they are, for all that, under a rule of life, and that rule is their own understanding and reason:" (Paraphrase on the Romans, p. 160.)

Under the present circumstances of humanity, Reason stands in need of being aided; and hence the expediency and fitness of Revelation: but the original faculty, or gift of God, to which it is addressed, ought not to be vilified.

'The message of God (revelation of his will) is *no vain thing*, (says Mr. S.) because it is exactly adapted to the condition of mankind.' True: but he should have considered that, in this condition, must be included their *capacity* to receive it, as well as its suitableness to supply their exigencies.—We will not longer dwell on this matter, because Mr. S. may not mean to assert all that his words imply.

The sermons are twenty-one in number, on the following texts—Deut. xxxii. 47.—Deut. vi. 6—9.—Is. vi. 5—8.—1 John, iv. 8.—Acts, xxvi. 19, 20.—2 Cor. v. 17.—Ps. ii. 12.—1 Cor. iv. 5.—Rom. ii. 5—9.—1 Tim. vi. 6.—Rev. iii. 15, 16.—Matt. v. 16.—James, i. 22—25.—1 Cor. xiii. 13.—Luke, ii. 13, 14.—1 Sam. vii. 12.—Is. ix. 13.—John, i. 29.—1 Cor. xv. 20.—Is. xxxii. 15.—Philipp. i. 27.—Mr. Scott shall speak for himself as to the object which he had in view in the composition of them;—an object, it must be confessed, highly laudable:

'To shew the absolute necessity of evangelical principles in order to holy practice; and their never-failing efficacy in sanctifying the heart, when cordially received; and to exhibit, according to the best of the author's ability, the nature and effects of genuine Christianity, as distinguished from every species of false religion, without going far out of his way to combat any of them; is the especial design of this publication.'

Possessing much seriousness and piety, combined with ability as a preacher, this author is entitled to commendation; and yet, in several instances, we cannot but protest against his interpretations, assertions, and expressions. We cannot approve of his telling his hearers that 'we are put to death by a lingering execution;' that 'there are fallen angels numerous and powerful, subtle, malicious, and indefatigable, who watch every opportunity of doing us mischief;' and that Jehovah means to say by the words in Ps. ii. 12. "*Kiss the son,*" 'I de-

mand for my beloved Son that very adoration which I prohibited and abhorred when offered unto idols.'

In sermon III, he erects a doctrine on a false and obviously erroneous rendering of the text; Isaiah, vi. 5—8. —The origin and precise meaning of sacrifices it may be difficult to explain. They were no doubt symbolical representations: but Mr. S., we think, has gone too far when he asserts that 'the numberless *innocent* animals slain in the Jewish sacrifices, and their bodies consumed to ashes, were constant declarations that sinners deserved death, and the *fiery wrath* of God in another world.' It is strange, indeed, that the consuming an *innocent* animal, by fire, should be adopted to signify the nature of the punishment which a *guilty* one merits.

Thinking it to be his duty to alarm sinners, Mr. S., in discoursing from 1 John, 4—8. *God is Love*, seems to apprehend that this amiable representation of the Deity, standing by itself, may create comfortable hope and perhaps religious indolence; and therefore he tells his hearers that *God*, in another place, is said to be *a consuming fire*; and he adds, 'Now a man would not think of inferring from this last expression, that the Lord cannot exercise mercy, but must punish and destroy all sinners without exception; and this may shew us, that *limitations* are also implied, when it is said, that *God is Love.*'

We are more pleased with a remark that immediately follows: 'The attributes of the Deity doubtless exist and operate with a simplicity that we cannot explain, and probably there is not that entire distinction between the effects of mercy, justice, truth, and holiness, in the divine nature and conduct, which appears to our contracted minds.' Most probably this is the case: but is it not surprising that the preacher, who could thus speak of the Deity, should in the very same sermon talk of him as 'glorifying himself in the destruction of our rebellious race?' and attempt to prove everlasting punishment to be consistent with his infinite love?

Mr. Scott strongly reprobates, in another place, the introduction of language which is not scriptural. 'New terms,' says he, 'will imperceptibly introduce new doctrines, nor has the subtilty of Satan or his servants better succeeded, in "privily bringing in damnable heresies," than modernizing the language of divinity.' According to this, he has himself been guilty of a "damnable heresy," for the scriptures represent Jehovah as placing his GLORY in the exercise of mercy towards sinners: but no where, that we recollect, as 'glorifying himself in their destruction.'

Though

Though a cast of sentiment and a turn of expression abound in these sermons which are not conformable to our judgment and taste, a strong desire of being useful is every where manifest; and there are some passages which we much admire, especially in the xth and xivth sermons.

A digression is made in the xvth sermon, for Christmas day, text, "Peace on Earth, &c." respecting the unavoidableness of war, which we will transcribe:

'I mean not, my brethren, to declaim against the profession of arms, or to condemn all rulers and nations that engage in war. Some soldiers have been, and some are Christians: but their profession is their cross, and its duties their self-denial; they would not willingly engage in any war of ambition, rapacity, or revenge; but they readily face danger and endure hardship in defence of their country. The more we hate war, and long for peace; the greater are our obligations to such men, as thus expose themselves to guard us against injurious assailants; and the more fervently we ought to pray for their protection and success. In the present state of the world, war is a necessary evil, and often quite unavoidable: and that not merely when a nation is directly attacked; for there are many other ways, by which the rapacious and ambitious may render a neighbouring country incapable of defending its liberties and possessions; and these can only be counteracted by vigorous opposition. Nor are private individuals generally competent to decide what wars are necessary and justifiable, or the contrary: in this respect, rulers must give an account to God for their conduct. But wars proceed originally from the lusts of men's hearts *, and from the wicked one: God employs them as he does hurricanes, earthquakes, or pestilences, as executioners of his vengeance on guilty nations: and ambitious conquerors, however accomplished or illustrious, are the most hateful and tremendous scourges of our apostate race. We may therefore deprecate and denounce war itself, as the most horrid and atrocious evil, consistently with the obedience and honour due to our rulers, and the most sincere prayers for the success of their measures, as far as they tend to the protection and welfare of our beloved country. But we must also maintain, that all the blood shed in war is murder, chargeable on them, whose criminal projects and politicks render such dreadful methods of resisting them necessary; and that it will certainly be required at *their* hands, on which side soever the victims were slaughtered.'

As to the continuance of the miseries of war, he adds, in sermon xx.

'Thus it will be in great measure, "until the Spirit be poured upon us from on high." Ambition, resentment, rapacity, and interfering interests will continue to excite mankind to war: and both the mighty and the mean will, in general, deem this one of the most honourable and desirable of employments; till those happy times

* 'James, iv. 1.'

arrive, which are predicted in the scriptures, when "the nations shall beat their swords into plow-shares and their spears into pruning-hooks; and they shall learn war no more."

To the sermons, are subjoined some forms of prayer for family worship.

We must apologise to the author for having so long omitted to notice his work.

ART. XIII. *Miscellaneous Observations on the Effects of Oxygen on the Animal and Vegetable Systems;* illustrated by Experiments, and interspersed with Chemical, Physiological, Pathological, and Practical Remarks; and an Attempt to prove why some Plants are *Evergreen*, and others *Deciduous*, in the Climate of Great Britain and Ireland. Part I. By Clement Archer, Esq. M. R. I. A. of the Royal College of Surgeons, Surgeon to the Lord Lieutenant's Household, &c. 8vo. pp. 144. 3s. sewed. Dilly. 1798.

THE readers of this work must not look in it for any deep or intricate philosophical researches, as the author professes that 'his book is intended for the perusal of the unlearned among the fair sex, as well as for the enlightened man of science.' As a specimen of what they are to expect, we present them with the following observations on Plantations in great Domains, and on the choice of places for taking exercise at different times of the day; in which Mr. Archer at least displays much ingenuity, and may afford some advice of practical utility.

'All plantations in great demesnes should be at such a distance from the dwelling house, as that the oxygen which the leaves are pouring out during day-light, and the azote they are parting with in the night-time, should be very well mixed with the surrounding intermediate air, before it finds its way into the apartments. Plantations very close to the windows of a house are exceedingly ill-judged, because, from sun-rise to sun-set, they are throwing a large quantity of oxygen, undiluted by any other kind of air, into the chambers, which may be highly injurious to several individuals in the family; and as, from sun-set to sun-rise they produce the most impure vapours only, they cannot fail, during that time, of being noxious to every person in the house. The custom, therefore, of making such plantations under the windows of almost every house in England and Ireland should be discontinued. The practice of bringing a great number of pots of hot-house and green-house plants into drawing-rooms and parlours, should, for the same reasons, be laid aside also.

'Surrounding great demesnes with extensive plantations of all kinds of forest-trees and evergreen shrubs, is not only very ornamental, but at the same time exceſſively beneficial; for such screening plantations afford shelter, and furnish a continual current of vital air, which must be wafted into the grounds, let the wind blow from what point of the compass

compass it may. The great mass of planting in every extensive demesne should be to the west and south-west of the house; because winds from those points are much the most prevalent in England and Ireland; the vital air, therefore, from plantations in these directions, will, for the greater part of the year, be constantly flowing towards the house and offices, where there is the greatest consumption of it.

'It is now very generally admitted, that in a great multiplicity of diseases, there is too small a proportion of oxygen in the system; while, on the contrary, in some others, there is a superabundance of that principle. The cases in which there is a defect of vital energy, are much more numerous than those in which there is an excess of it. Among the former we may include all the orders, genera, and species of Dr. Cullen's two classes, Neurosis and Cachexiæ; viz. palsy, dyspepsia, hypochondriasis, melancholia, spasmodic affections, palpitations, (not proceeding from organic affection of the heart,) asthma, diabetes, hysteria, tabes, anasarca, ascites, hydrothorax, scorbutus, chlorosis; to which may be added, atonic gout, and chronic rheumatism, (especially in old subjects,) schirrhus, lethargy, jaundice, ill-conditioned ulcers, cases of great debility after every species of typhus-fever, leucorrhœa, &c. The disorders in which further oxygenation is unnecessary, and in which it might be dangerous, are acute and inflammatory; but, as in all complaints of this description, (except the earlier stages of florid consumption,) the patients are for the most part unable to use exercise in the open air, I shall confine my observations, where hyper-oxygenation is present, entirely to this last complaint.

'In every disease in which there is too little oxygen in the system, the sick should endeavour to acquire a sufficient quantity of that so indispensably necessary principle to health, by every means that can be devised, consistent with safety. The lungs are the most natural route by which any substance in its aerial form can be conveyed into the system. The inspiration, therefore, of air of an higher standard than the atmosphere, is now recommended by several very able physicians; and there are a great number of well-authenticated cases of exceedingly obstinate nervous affections of various kinds; even when they have verged towards melancholia, and of other very refractory complaints, in which the practice has been attended with the most perfect success *. Persons afflicted with such maladies should not neglect even the small additional quantity of vital air, which the neighbourhood of woods, groves, or hedge-rows, affords during the day-time; they should, therefore, when they go out in a carriage, on horseback, or on foot, make choice of the sheltered, and if possible, the sunny side of extensive plantations, to take their exercise in about one o'clock; for it has been proved by Doctor Ingenhousz, that the leaves of trees pour forth the purest air after the sun has passed the meridian. (See Exper. upon Vegetables, page 44.) Evergreens, the lauro-cerasus in particular, do not begin to produce pure air till late in the day. (Exper. on Vegetables, p. 223.)

'* See Townshend's Guide to Health, and a Collection of Cases lately published by a Society of Physicians in London.'

'It

'It would also, I am satisfied from one or two cases that have fallen under my observation, be attended with the most salutary consequences, if valetudinarians who are ill from a deficiency of oxygen (in whose cases excessive debility does not prevail) were to spend the greater part of the middle of every day, in summer and autumn, in riding and walking about woods and groves; or in reading, conversation, playing at shuttlecock, billiards, or in attending to music in temples, green-houses, moss houses, dry well-aired grottos, or such buildings as are common in shrubberies and wooded scenes, where the trees produce much purer air than is to be met with in more open situations.

'Invalids of this description should avoid all great assemblies, such as balls, routs, &c. at which vital air is consumed by the respiration of the company and the combustion of the candles, a great deal faster than fresh can find its way into our present fashionable apartments, from which modern refinement in luxury has as studiously shut out the free access of air, as if it were noxious, instead of being necessary to animal life; and they should spend their afternoons and sleep in spacious and well-ventilated chambers, the windows of which should not look into a shrubbery, from which azote instead of oxygen is exhaling during the whole course of the night.

'As there is a scarcity of oxygen in many of the diseases to which children are incident, all such as are ricketty, badly nursed, pot-bellied, or disposed to hydrocephalus internus, or water on the brain, should pass the greater part of the middle of the day in fine weather in the nurse's arms, or at play, (according to their age, and other circumstances,) in the neighbourhood of shrubberies or more extensive plantations; but when children are hectic, let them avoid wooded scenes, and take air and exercise in large open fields, or upon uncultivated commons; for the smallest additional oxygenation of their blood may be highly injurious to them.'

We shall also lay before our medical readers the opinion of Mr. Archer respecting the use of nitric acid in syphilis.

'Mr. Scott, a surgeon at Bombay, is so sanguine as to assert that nitric acid is equal if not superior to mercury, as an antisyphilitic remedy. That it is very efficacious in many stages of the complaint, has been most incontestibly proved in the communications of Dr. Beddoes and Mr. Cruikshank, and under my own observation at the Lock Hospital in Dublin. I confess, however, that I am one among a number of practitioners who think it a very fortunate circumstance for mankind, that we have still the old specific to resort to. The acid is indisputably a most powerful auxiliary medicine, and as it is not injurious to the constitution, it may be right to let it precede mercury in delicate habits; but in my opinion it will never supersede that metal in the cure of any disease for which it has for ages been esteemed a sovereign remedy.'

For a farther testimony on the above subject, we refer to our account of Mr. Blair's Essays on the Ven. Dis. vol. xxvii. p. 455.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1799.

HISTORY.

Art. 14. *The History of the incorporated Towns and Parishes of Gravesend and Milton, in the County of Kent*; selected with Accuracy from Topographical Writers, and enriched from MSS. hitherto unnoticed, &c. 4to. pp. 248. 10s. 6d. Boards. Gravesend, printed by R. Pocock; London, sold by Robinsons. 1797.

THE county of Kent, as it produced Lambarde the father of provincial historians, has been subsequently examined by more investigators than any other part of England. From Mr. Hasted, the last of them, Mr. Pocock has principally compiled this local account; of the MSS. which he has consulted we know nothing: but many of his additions are not more important than collections from the churchyard,—not so uninteresting, perhaps, to the inhabitants of Gravesend as to most other readers.

We are, however, unwilling to withhold due praise from such local inquiries, when they are pursued with judgment and detailed with *conciseness*. Mr. Pocock has at least the merit of industry, and of a commendable wish to augment the information of his neighbours; by whom chiefly his work will be valued.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 15. *The Latin Primmer*, &c. By the Rev. Richard Lyne, late Master of the Grammar School at Liskeard, now private Tutor there to six Pupils. Second Edition. 12mo. 3s. bound. Law, &c. 1797.

As this valuable 'introductory book for Latin schools' was duly noticed in our Review vol. xix. N. S. p. 88. it only remains for us to announce this new edition, 'revised and enlarged by the author;' referring our readers, for a more particular account of the work, to our former notice.

Art. 16. *A Mirror for the Female-Sex. Historical Beauties for Young Ladies*; intended to lead the Female Mind to the Love and Practice of Moral Goodness. Designed principally for the Use of Ladies' Schools. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Newbery. 1798.

In this publication, the writer's attention is more immediately directed to the youth of her own sex. She regrets 'that the exterior of female education is cultivated but too frequently at the expence of qualities more valuable; that a showy outside leaves hardly any taste for mental excellence; and that reality is every where sacrificed to appearance. The requisites, for indulging this fashionable propensity, give young Ladies, especially while at school, no time for acquiring the least idea of general history, as they enjoy no leisure for reading, or digesting what little they may read.' Such consider-

ations have given rise to the selections which this volume contains. Numerous virtues, or qualities, with their opposites, are presented to view, each illustrated and impressed by short narratives, in general very pertinent and likely to promote the end desired: one or two, perhaps, are of a kind rather too horrid, as particularly that of the Spanish nobleman. The good lady discourses well on *politeness*, an amiable quality, when properly understood and employed: but we are inclined to wish that she had added some farther reflections to guard the young mind against that artifice, or dissimulation, which what are called polished manners have too often concealed.

The intention and the tendency of the work are so valuable, and the remarks are in general so just and useful, that we are rather reluctant in pointing out a few deficiencies. In page 3. l. 7. *has* should no doubt be *have*.—In one or two passages, as p. 6 and 9, the reader might be led to suppose that *Protestants* alone are *Christians*: now though we could agree with this writer that *Popery* is not Christianity, we must yet allow its professors the name of Christians, since they believe in Jesus Christ, although they have miserably corrupted and deformed his doctrine.—In page 38. l. 1. the sixth king of Rome, *Servius* Tullius, is mentioned by the name of *Severus*.—We may also ask whether the word *filial*, in the Portuguese story, p. 53, should not have been *fraternal*?

Art. 17. *Henry, or the Foundling*: to which are added, the Prejudiced Parent, or the Virtuous Daughter. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. pp. 173. 1s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

This lady has frequently received from us (as in the preceding article) that favourable notice to which her publications appeared to be entitled. The present little volume seems, as *she* says, 'calculated to improve the minds and morals of youth.' If readers, whether in more early or advanced life, will permit themselves, at the same time that they are amused or interested, to mark with care the lessons of virtue and truth which rising circumstances present, or the cautions and warnings which they suggest, there is little doubt of their receiving at least a present, and perhaps a lasting, benefit. It may be thought by some that Henry, who talks against revenge, in one instance too readily yields to its dominion: it may also be said that the language is, in some places, raised above what is suited to the time of life,—an error too common in books intended for children and youth.—but some objection will attach to every performance. There is a strange inadvertence in the title-page, where the word '*are*' is used instead of *is*. In page 93. l. 15. we observe, 'remark*able* good,' instead of remark*ably* good. When Henry is discovered to be the eldest son of an Earl, he is improperly styled *Lord Henry* Lister: the sons of no other noblemen than Marquises and Dukes have by courtesy the title of *Lord* before their Christian name: an Earl's eldest son takes by courtesy the second title of his father, which is either a Viscounty or a Barony.

Art. 18. *Moral Philosophy, or Logic*: adapted to the Capacities of Youth. By the late R. Gillet, F. R. S. Lecturer in Philosophy. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Sael. 1798.

A former

A former small publication by this writer received a favourable notice in our Review *. We often find it difficult to give a just account of such works as this now before us; which consist of selection and compilation from former and larger performances. For the present inquiry, Locke and Watts have provided materials, which may be wrought into some different forms without producing any thing new, except in manner. The volume consists of hints and observations, which (we apprehend) Mr. Gillet employed and on which he enlarged in the delivery of lectures. It may be perused with advantage by those who wish to obtain an acquaintance with the subject proposed, since it contains several useful remarks and instructions; which, no doubt, received improvement when they were offered *vivâ voce*.

Art. 19. *The Force of Example;* or the History of Henry and Caroline; written for the Instruction and Amusement of Young Persons. Small 8vo. pp. 159. 2s. bound. Newbery.

Some imperfections might be pointed out in this little volume, but its general character is that of important instruction and utility. How much has been pronounced by mankind to be original depravity, which has been solely or chiefly occasioned by the neglect of early restraint and cultivation! This book may entertain and improve the young, as well as those who are not generally included in this description; and it merits their attention.

Art. 20. *The Scholar's Spelling Assistant:* wherein the Words are arranged on an improved Plan; calculated to familiarise the Art of Spelling and Pronunciation, remove Difficulties, and facilitate Improvement. For the Use of Schools and private Tuition. By Thomas Carpenter, Master of the Academy, Barking, Essex. 8vo. 1s. Lee and Hurst.

As it is in other instances, so also in books for spelling, the worst may prove of some use, and the best are still defective. Respecting this before us, we conclude it has found acceptance, as it has arrived at a second edition. The writer pleads for the old method of dividing syllables, a point on which we will not determine:—but we rather incline to separate *des-pot-ic* than *des-po-tic*; which keeps the radical word distinct. We are pleased with the selection of 'words of similar sound, but differing in spelling and sense,' as we are also in other respects. At the same time, we can perceive that the book will yet admit of improvement; and such improvement it will no doubt receive, as it passes to a farther edition.

We are somewhat surprised to find, in a proper list of abbreviations and contractions,—'D. D. doctor divinitatis, Doctor of divinity;'—The Latin signature for this title, no doubt the author knows, is S. T. P.—The D. D. rather belongs to the English.—*Divinitatis*, we conclude, is an error of the press.

Art. 21. *Reflections on the present Condition of the Female Sex*; with Suggestions for its Improvement. By Priscilla Wakefield. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1798.

* October, 1796. N. S. vol. xxi. p. 230.

Much

Much good sense and useful instruction are contained in this little volume. It is divided into eight chapters; of which the first three are more general than the others, and relate to the management and education of young females. Among other things, Miss Wakefield recommends more active diversions than are commonly allowed, such as running races, trundling a hoop, jumping with a rope, &c; she also pleads for maternal and domestic instruction; or, where this cannot be readily attained, for select day-schools.

The five concluding chapters are devoted to the four classes into which females are here divided. After having pointed out the appropriate duties and pursuits of the first and second or higher orders, this intelligent writer attends to the transition from affluence to poverty, which is not uncommon in the fluctuation of human affairs; and she therefore judiciously proposes some employments of a lucrative kind, which in such an event might be the means of procuring a respectable support. The next class includes 'several gradations, involving the daughters of every species of tradesmen below the merchant, and above the meaner mechanic:' from these are entirely excluded 'plays and novels, with every work tending to inflame the passions, and implant sentiments of the omnipotence of love and beauty, as containing a baneful poison,'—'for (it is added) nothing can be more distant from the plain, sober, useful qualities of a housewife, than the excellencies of the heroine of a [common] novel.' A variety of employments are suggested for women, and it is lamented that the men have in so many instances incroached on what is properly the female province.—The observations offered respecting the fourth class are not less pertinent and instructive than those which relate to the others.

Art. 22. *Parsing Lessons for Young Children:* resolved into their Elements, for the Assistance of Parents and Teachers. By Mrs. Lovechild. 12mo. 9d. Newbery.

Parsing Lessons for Elder Pupils, resolved into their Elements, for the Assistance of Parents and Teachers. By Mrs. Lovechild, 12mo. 1s. Newbery. 1798.

In former years, not very distant, our youth knew little or nothing grammatically of their own language, unless they were taught the Latin or the French, and even then they too often became very imperfectly acquainted with grammar. Considerable care has been manifested of late (judging at least by the productions of the press) to correct this error. The little tracts before us are parts of a series of books for this purpose. In the preface to the first, Mrs. Lovechild observes that the office which she assumes is humble, 'that of Dame behind the curtain to prompt such mothers who are diffident of themselves.—I am the old woman who offer my service, and flatter myself with the hope of leading the dear little people with ease and satisfaction.' This is intended for younger children, but is in much the same form with that which follows, and which is contrived to perfect what has been before attempted. The four sets of lessons in each appear to be suitably directed, both to engage the attention and to employ the capacity of the young scholar.—The good old Dame designs well; her method is amusing; and she has already, we are told, had the satisfaction of finding that her labours have been acceptable.

Art.

Art. 23. *The Little Teacher*, for Reading and Spelling well. By a Parent. 12mo. 9d. Darton and Harvey. 1798.

More pretty methods of learning A, B, C, and more pretty pictures from *Nature*, to excite the infant pupil's attention.—Messrs. D. and H. seem to be in a fair way, by their alluring cuts, to *cut-out* all their rivals in the Lilliputian elementary branch of literature.

BOTANY.

Art. 24. *Nereis Britannica*, &c. &c. *i. e. Nereis Britannica*; or a Botanical Description of the British Marine Plants, in Latin and English: accompanied with Drawings from Nature. By John Stackhouse, Esq. F. L. S. Number I. and II. Fol. 12s. 6d. White. 1795, 1797.

The class of plants, which the publication before us is intended to elucidate, has longer perplexed the inquiries of botanists than any other. This circumstance is not surprising, as their place of growth, general form, particular structure, and mode of propagation, are all so different from those of the vegetable inhabitants of the land, that analogies derived from the latter are a very obscure and dubious guide. So minute, indeed, is the system of fructification of the marine plants, that it was not till after several accurate observations made with magnifying glasses of high powers, that the ingenious author of this work was enabled to discover the curious particulars described in the preface to the second fasciculus. These are incapable of abridgment: but it is enough for us to say that the experiments ended in the detection of real seeds, proved to be such by procuring their actual vegetation.

The genus *Fucus* is arranged in six divisions, thus characterized by Mr. Stackhouse:

FUCUS. *Fructif.* a jelly-like mass, with imbedded seed-bearing granules, and external conical papillæ—terminating.

CERAMIUM. *Fruct.* a jelly-like mass, without the seed-bearing granules; internal, universal, papillæ invisible.

CHONDRUS. *Fruct.* an ovate, rigid, imbedded pericarp, containing seeds in a clear mucus, and prominent in either surface.

SPHÆROCOCCUS. *Fruct.* external globular pericarps, adnate or immersed; sessile or pedunculate; containing seeds as above.

CHORDA. *Fruct.* a mucous fluid in the hollow part of a cylindrical frond, with naked seeds affixed inwardly.

CODIUM. *Fruct.* invisible; frond roundish: soft and spungy when wet; velvety when dry.

The two fasciculi contain the descriptions and figures of 39 species and varieties of Fucus. They appear to unite accuracy with elegance in a very meritorious degree.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 25. *A Treatise on the Duty of Infantry Officers, and the present System of British Military Discipline.* With an Appendix. By Thomas Reide, Esq. Captain in the Loyal Essex Regiment of Fencible Infantry. 12mo. pp. 258. 3s. 6d. Walter, and Egerton. 1798.

The

The first impression of this very comprehensive treatise was published in 1795, and we regret that it has hitherto escaped our notice, because we do not recollect ever to have met with so much useful information, for an officer, in so small a compass. The work is now in general circulation, and has in a manner become a book of authority; and several military authors have not only freely borrowed, but have literally copied from it.

We remark by the printer's date, as well as by a judicious alteration in the instructions for forming a 'close column on a central company facing to the rear,' (p. 162,) that the author has had the satisfaction of seeing a second impression required, although no notice is taken, in the title-page of the copy before us, of its being a second edition.

Art. 26. *Instructions for Hussars, and Light Cavalry acting as such, in Time of War.* A Translation. 8vo. pp. 147. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1798.

Although no name is prefixed to this translation, we understand that it is the production of a young British Senator, (Mr. Rose, jun.) who commands a corps of yeomanry cavalry; and who, besides several intelligent notes, has added a sensible and modest preface: from which we take the following extract.

'He has reason to think that these instructions (which came into his hands in manuscript) were in use in a body of troops, highly distinguished for its good conduct in one of the confederate armies, and that the principles inculcated in them are those, to which the best Hussars now known conform. The reader will immediately perceive that many ideas, and, in some places, nearly whole paragraphs occur in them, which are to be found in those given by the King of Prussia to his light cavalry: but this, as the translator is much more anxious for the utility of this work, than that it should wear an appearance of originality, he must consider as an advantage which it possesses. A treatise of this sort should be a compilation of such ideas alone, as experience has either suggested, or approved. In general, these instructions are more detailed than the King of Prussia's: but wherever they appear to have omitted any thing essential contained in his, it is added in a note. Use has likewise been occasionally made in them of Count Turpin's Essai sur l'Art de la Guerre. A few notes have been subjoined from such parts of Lindenau's Treatise upon Winter Posts, as were applicable.' Pref. p. 8.

A work of this kind cannot fail of being highly serviceable, particularly to the yeomanry and volunteer corps; and we are happy in having an opportunity of again expressing the sincere satisfaction, which we always feel when we see young men of fashion and fortune devoting their time to the service of their country.

Art. 27. *The Officer's Manual in the Field;* or a Series of Military Plans, representing the Principal Operations of a Campaign. Translated from the German. 12mo. pp. 70. 15s. Egerton. 1798.

The two preceding articles instruct an officer how to form and move a battalion, and to conduct a small body of troops. *After* he has

has obtained this information, he will be qualified to enter on the present work with pleasure and advantage. It contains 'a series of examples of the principal operations which occur in the course of a campaign,' and is designed 'to elucidate and render familiar the various objects of the military profession, by exhibiting detached plans, which comprehend both the position of an army with respect to its enemy—the nature of the ground upon which it is to act—the methods in which manœuvres, marches, and attacks are to be prepared and executed, and to give certain precepts of this difficult science, the rules of which, as well as their applications, are almost innumerable.' The plates also exhibit every operation of a siege, from the first investment of a fortress to the final assault.

The text is little more than an explanation of the plates, which are sixty in number, very neatly executed, and admirably correct, except in a few instances.

The letter E quoted in the references to Plate 36 is not given in the plate itself, but we have no difficulty in finding the point which it was intended to mark. Neither are we at a loss to perceive that the numerical figures in N° 3, Plate 43, are intended to express the dimensions in feet, although no notice is taken of them in the explanation.

The profiles N°s 2 and 3, Plate 42, are in the contrary direction to N° 1, in the same plate; which might lead a novice in fortification to mistake the rear for the front. The *banquettes* in N° 3, however, would probably shew him the error. In page 50, plate 48 is misquoted for plate 47.

We have been able to find only one point on which we can attack the author's Generalship; and that is at the passage of the river plate 15, where, though on the side from which the army crosses he has very properly placed platoons of infantry which have advanced to occupy the bridge and to support by their fire the dragoons, (who have already taken post on the other side of the river,) in case the latter should be repulsed by the enemy, yet no notice is taken of the island which divides the stream and unites the bridges; and which ought certainly to be lined both by infantry and cannon, if any attack is apprehended before the whole army has crossed.

IRELAND.

Art. 28. *The Case of Ireland reconsidered.* In Answer to a Pamphlet intitled, "Arguments for and against an Union considered." 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

The intention of this important pamphlet is to explain the hardships to which the Roman Catholics of Ireland are subjected, and to prove that what they endure is unjust, and not necessary to any good or useful purpose. The author, who is himself of that persuasion, writes with feeling, but with great temper and strength of argument. We believe that many of our readers will be gratified by the following extracts, which appear to express the sentiments of a sensible man, and a friend to just government. He declares himself no enemy 'to a fair and broad union for the good of the whole country,' but he is against 'a narrow insidious union, playing the fears of one set of men against those of another.'

'The union,' says he, 'is a secondary question—Give the people of Ireland cause to be content. They may be satisfied by an union, they may be satisfied without it, but until they are, no form of government will avail. Do not listen to those idle ill-tempered exclamations, the people of Ireland never can be satisfied! Ask yourselves calmly, Has a fair trial ever been made? Ask yourselves—not what has been done, but what remains to be done?'

The question which the author principally examines is, "whether three fourths of the people of Ireland ought to be shut out from the full and equal benefit of whatever constitution she is to have?"

No sentence in '*Arguments for and against an Union considered**' has obtained more notice, than that which states nine tenths of the property of Ireland to be in the hands of the Protestants, who are scarcely one fourth part of the population. If this statement be correct, the mean ratio of individual property is as twenty-seven to one. In addition to the weight of this unnatural disproportion of property, the hardships thrown on the unfortunate majority are thus in part described by the author: 'The religion of three men out of four, which is the religion of the country, is Catholic, and is allowed no support from government. The religion of one man out of four is Protestant, which is the *religion* of the state, and is endowed with the tithe of the whole kingdom, besides great property in land.'—

'Among the peasantry, the proportion of Roman Catholics is much greater. They are the poorest peasantry in the world, get least for their work, and pay most for their land; have the most numerous families, and have no help from their parishes to support them. After paying a tithe, exacted generally with very great rigour, to support the established religion, of which they never hear but by the tithe-proctor, they must out of their poverty pay something to their own priest, who, nearly as poor as themselves, lives with them and renders them many services.'—'The people of Ireland, till within these few years, were not admitted into Protestant schools, were not allowed to have schools of their own, nor to be educated abroad.'

On the endeavour to compare the union between England and Scotland with the proposed union between Great Britain and Ireland, the author observes,

'In Scotland, the religion of the people was permitted to be the religion of the country: it was not barely tolerated, but established and confirmed, by all that human wisdom can devise, before the articles of union were discussed in parliament.

'In Ireland, the religion of the people is not permitted to be the religion of the country: it is scarcely tolerated; the religion of a small minority (a political phenomenon) is the established religion of the state.'

The writer is very justly severe on a maxim advanced in the *Arguments considered*, that, "*when once the hope of changing is at an end, and the hope of forcing such a change destroyed, dissatisfaction would sink into acquiescence, and acquiescence into content.*"—'Here (says he) the people

* See M. R. Feb. 1799. p. 216.

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of Ireland of all denominations, for this is addressed to them all, may see through what a soft and natural progression their leading characters are preparing to conduct them to happiness.' In another place, he remarks;

'One cannot help pitying a government which seems to be in constant terror of the prosperity of its own subjects. Their number, their riches, their spirit, their civil or military talents, are so many objects of fear. Such a government can subsist only by taking as much pains to keep its subjects poor, weak, ignorant, and mean, as other princes take to make theirs wealthy, powerful, enlightened, warlike, and high-spirited.'

Yet the author strongly insists that the religion, to which the people of Ireland are attached, is inimical to revolution:

'Late events furnish one of the strongest proofs that can exist, of the tendency of Roman Catholic principles to loyalty. Every means that human sagacity could devise, argument, wit, ridicule, seduction of every kind, were used to overthrow this religion, before any attempt could be made to overturn the throne in France. I say *this* religion, because whoever is conversant with the works of these precursors of revolution, must know that their wit and ridicule was aimed more at the Catholic religion than at any other.'——'The same thing was doing in Ireland, (I hope not with the same design). And the common people began to yield to the contempt and contumely which ignorant men of confined education, or men of better information and worse principles, were constantly throwing out against their religion, without taking care to put another in its place. Their respect for their priests was weakened, as in the late rebellion it appeared; the common people were led away, but very few Roman Catholic gentlemen, no superior Roman Catholic clergymen, and out of some thousands a very small number of priests were concerned; while the Directory and leading members were Protestants and Presbyterians. I do not say this from party spirit, either in politics or religion; I hate it, for the mischief it has done and is still doing in both; but to prove, that the religion which the people of Ireland are attached to is inimical to revolution, and does not in the least interfere with any legal form of government which society may assume.'

An ingenious and pointed turn is given to the argument in the following paragraph: 'We are told, *it is difficult to comprehend the wisdom of the Presbyterians joining with the Roman Catholics.* It is indeed difficult to comprehend the wisdom of that system which drove Protestant, Presbyterian, and Catholic, into a desperate union against it.'—'To comfort this numerous class of the inhabitants (the Catholics of Ireland) they are told, that "*they would do well to rest satisfied* with a much *greater degree of toleration than the Protestants have ever enjoyed under a Catholic state.*"—'There is more of passion in this argument than of justice or of generosity, and less of sound reasoning than of either. Admitting the position, what an inference! We must regulate our conduct by the misconduct of others.'

The writer appeals not less forcibly to our interest as a nation than to our justice:

'The atate into which the exorbitant, convulsive power of France has thrown all Europe, does certainly command every nation to come forward with all its energy; no portion of the population of any country can now be withheld from an hearty co-operation in defence of all that is dear to society, out of compliment to any party, or to any prejudice. And is it fair to tell men, that they must spill the last drop of their blood, and spend their last shilling, for a cause in which they are not allowed an equal interest with those of the same rank of life by whose side they are fighting?'

He demands, 'Will the people of Ireland welcome exclusion and degradation from a British, more than from an Irish parliament?'—'It is dangerous,' he adds, 'it is almost treason against the cause of all regular society, attacked as it is by powerful enemies, to trifle in this manner with the feelings of three millions of people, by excluding them from those rights for which we call upon them to venture their lives.'

How far the author has established his position, that religious distinctions in Ireland might be abolished with less danger than they can be continued, we will not presume to determine: but we are of opinion that his arguments cannot fail to make strong impressions on the mind of every unprejudiced and unbiassed reader.

We cannot properly dismiss this pamphlet, without mentioning a scheme suggested by the author, for determining questions of common interest (which he calls Imperial questions) wherein two independent legislatures may differ. He proposes to effect this by establishing a proportion of weight to the votes in each legislature.

Art. 29. *A Reply to a Pamphlet intitled* "Arguments for and against an Union," &c. [See Rev. last Month.] By Richard Jebb, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Mr. Jebb observes, on the consequences of an union, that 'the grand and primary consideration paramount to every other, however important in itself to trade, manufactures, and civilization, is the effect on the empire. On the safety and power of the empire depend the safety and power of its members.' To this, we imagine, every sober and rational friend to either country will subscribe.—Mr. Jebb then argues that the King of England being *ipso facto* King of Ireland; that the prerogative and the whole of the patronage being possessed by him as amply in Ireland as in England;—there can be little reason to apprehend disagreement between the two kingdoms. In one instance only has it been known. 'A difference (he says) from the *existing* cabinet of England, in compliance with the wishes of what was supposed to be the *succeeding one.*' From what stubborn symptoms then, demands the writer, has the author of *Arguments for and against an Union* deduced his fears of differences between the Irish parliament and the executive power?

The following paragraph ought to awaken serious consideration:

'Now the patronage of Ireland has a sufficient influence over *four hundred men* to procure constant and large majorities for the Minister. The same patronage would not only still continue, but perhaps the patronage of England would afford some addition to it, if necessary.

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The numbers to be operated upon would be reduced from about four hundred to about one hundred, lords and commoners; the same motives of patriotism would operate as on the Scotch members; and it is fair to infer, this *fourfold influence* would produce UNANIMOUS SUPPORT OF ANY MINISTRY.'

Art. 30. *An Answer to the Pamphlet intitled*, "Arguments for and against an Union," &c. in a Letter addressed to Edward Cooke, Esq. Secretary at War. By Pemberton Rudd, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

This is but a short part of the promised answer. Mr. Rudd tells the author of *Arguments for and against an Union*, that, though he does not approve the order in which his arguments are arranged, he shall nevertheless attend him '*seriatim et literatim*, through every page and line of his performance.' We cannot pay the like attention to Mr. Rudd, without too much trespassing on our reader's patience, after the many publications on the same subject which we have already noticed. This letter is, however, written with considerable spirit. In a postscript, the author has departed from the order which he had prescribed to himself, to express his disapprobation of the disrespectful manner in which the Volunteers of 1779 and 1782 are mentioned in the *Arguments for and against an Union*. The present remarks, however, seem to be little more than an *introduction* to what the author intends to write, in a farther discussion of the subject.

Art. 31. *The present State of Ireland*, and the only Means of preserving her to the Empire, considered. In a Letter to the Marquis Cornwallis. By James Gerahty, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This letter is written in favour of an union, which the writer argues to be necessary, if not essential, to the tranquillity of Ireland, and to the security of the British empire. We wish not to controvert this opinion: but we cannot avoid remarking that some of the sentiments of the writer are harsh, and little to be commended for their morality. He believes it to be one of the *excellencies* 'of the British constitution,' that the royal estate and the branches 'of the legislature are so connected, that the latter are open to the influence of the former.'—He is not a friend to the character of the Irish, as a people, particularly of the Catholics. He speaks with much severity of *their crimes*, and with little feeling for their *miseries*. Yet, according to the following quotation, he seems to be of opinion that the Irish of the present day are superior, in civilization and knowlege, to the Romans in the days of Cicero: 'The late conspiracy in Ireland, for extent, system, and preparation, has no parallel in the confederacy of Catiline. They may resemble in boldness of design, and flagitiousness of means; but their difference is incalculable, when we compare the two eras which are stained with their enormities, and contrast the darkness of Paganism with the light of Christianity.'

Art. 32. *The Consequences of the proposed Union*, &c. *considered*. In a 2d Letter to Marquis Cornwallis. By J. Gerahty, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

Mr. Gerahty, in his preceding letter, having expressed his opinions on the necessity of an incorporated union of the legislatures of the two countries, writes this second epistle to shew that 'the operation of such an union must prove highly and extensively beneficial to Ireland.' The doctrine of the omnipotence of parliament has by no one been carried higher, than by Mr. G. in the following assertion: That 'it is competent for the existing legislature to adopt any measure which the people themselves, in an aggregate capacity, might determine, is equally and undeniably a principle of the British constitution.' If this be true, has not a majority at any time a right to vote themselves *perpetual*, with dictatorial power?

Art. 33. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas*, in the House of Commons, Feb. 7th, 1799, on the Subject of the Legislative Union with Ireland. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

In this well-laboured speech, Mr. Dundas maintains that, in the present method of administering the affairs of Ireland, there is a deficiency of social compact between that country and Great Britain; and he argues on the benefit that would accrue to Ireland, as well as to the general interest of both countries, from an union of the legislatures. In comparing the state of Scotland before the union with its present state, he perhaps attributes the increased prosperity of that country in too unqualified a manner to the effect of the union; not (as it seems) duly considering the general progress of improvement throughout Europe, since that period:—nevertheless, it is not to be doubted that both England and Scotland have been greatly benefited by their junction.

All that is proposed by the present discussion is, as Mr. Dundas states, 'to give the people and parliament of Ireland time and opportunity to know and consider what the English parliament is willing to share with them, without attempting the smallest interference with their independence.' 'If however,' he says, 'upon reflection, the Irish legislature should not be convinced of the utility and necessity of the projected union, there is an end of the plan; and it must retain that degree of independence which it preferred to the numerous and important advantages which were held out to it.'

Art. 34. *Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt*, in the House of Commons, Jan. 31, 1799, on offering to the House the *Resolutions* which he proposed as the Basis of an Union between Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

This speech is rendered remarkable as much by the circumstances under which it was delivered, as by the importance of the subject. Those who feel more nearly interested in the question of union, than in ordinary political discussions, will naturally wish to penetrate into the sentiments and intentions of administration respecting the measure:—but their desire of information will probably be less gratified by this speech than they might have expected. The 6th and 7th propositions, which concern regulations in trade and revenue, may afford some satisfaction: but the interests of the Roman Catholics are passed over in the scheme. In the speech, that great majority of the Irish are *permitted* to hope for relief from an

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united imperial parliament, when their 'conduct shall be such as to make it safe for the government to admit them to the participation of the privileges granted to those of the established religion, and when the temper of the times shall be favourable to such a measure.' —Much expectation will scarcely be raised on such encouragement.

In arguing the question of competency, the parliament of Ireland is described as representing '*lawfully, fully, and freely, all the estates of the people of the realm.*' The tenderness of the ground in this part of the speech seems to be acknowleged; the argument being more directed to impress an idea that principles on the contrary side are dangerous, than that they are untrue. If any proposed scheme of union should be approved by the people at large in each country, the competency of the legislatures to carry it into effect would probably not come into question. Believing, as we do, that the mutual interest of both countries requires not merely an union of *forms*, but an union of *inclinations*; and that neither country could hope to enjoy security or tranquillity, if separated from the other; it is our earnest hope that, should a plan of union ever be adopted, it will come with the hearty approbation of the people of both kingdoms; and that it will be formed on principles so liberal and cordial, as to insure the continuance of that approbation.

Art. 35. *Competency of the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland* to incorporate their Legislatures, with some Remarks on the Debate in the Irish House of Commons, upon the Address. By the Author of Necessity of an Incorporate Union, &c. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

Much bad and perplexed argument, angrily urged. If by *competency* we be to understand an adequate *power*, argument is not necessary. If *right* be intended by *competency*, the only method of arriving at a certain conclusion is by reasoning on sound principles. The author rejects theory, with disdain; and he substitutes authorities for proofs. Unfortunately for his purpose, he has brought forwards a quotation from Mr. Locke, which he endeavours to twist, but it is too stubborn for his hand. He pretends that the foundation of legislative control has its source in assumed power: 'It is indispensable to human happiness that it should exist under some shape or other: but the innumerable forms which it takes, are indebted for existence to usurpation, to time, to a singular current of events, and perhaps, to every thing, and any thing but the deliberate choice of the people whom they rule.' On such a foundation, it would require great ingenuity to establish a *right* to the exercise of supreme power. As to the people, he says, 'by the very act of permitting a legislature to assume its superintending functions, they acknowlege their incapacity to make a law.'

We are not hostile to an incorporate union, provided it were acceptable to, and effected with the free consent of, both countries: neither are we friendly to the idea of referring questions to the community at large:—but we believe that, when the community feel a degree of interest sufficiently strong to induce them to interfere, and to give their opinion; and when that opinion conveys manifestly and

clearly the sense and wish of the community; it is *right* that it should be a guide to the legislature. Whether parliament be competent to act in all cases in which they are not opposed by the public wishes, or the wishes of their constituents, we do not inquire; but the opinion that a legislature can have a right to act, in any case, contrary to the known desire and consent of the community, can be entertained only by those who regard government as the proprietor rather than the agent of that community.

Art. 36. *Legal Arguments*, occasioned by the Project of an Union between Great Britain and Ireland, on the Exclusion of the Roman Catholic Nobility and Gentry, in both Kingdoms, from Parliament. By a Member of the Hon. Society of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 1s. Booker.

The great object of this writer's arguments (and a very great one it is!) is to prove that 'whether the project of the union be accomplished, or abandoned, the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry in either case ought, agreeably to the principle of existing laws, and of the constitution of the government, to be restored in both kingdoms to the right of sitting and voting in parliament.'

This bold proposition is defended by an appeal to the existing laws of both kingdoms; by a right understanding of which, he maintains, the disabilities of the Roman Catholics will be entirely removed. In the course of his disquisition, he manifests his attachment to and zeal for the Roman Catholic cause: but it is not a *zeal without knowlege*. He writes well; though we apprehend that his arguments would have had more effect if his style had been less declamatory, his reasoning more cool, and his language generally more guarded. The subject which he treats is of stupendous magnitude, and requires to be approached with the most awful consideration: we had almost said, with FEAR and TREMBLING!

POLITICAL, FINANCIAL, *&c.*

Art. 37. *Review of the Arguments* advanced in the House of Commons, in Support of the Duties upon Income. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

This reviewer is of opinion that, in order to raise a large sum of money, the taxation of income is preferable to any other mode of impost, and that it is the least objectionable on account of partiality. He endeavours to prove the equity of making no distinction between the different species of income, whether perpetuity, income for life, or for years. 'By taxing them all in the same proportion, (he says,) it leaves the different sorts of income in the same relative state in which it found them.' If there be any fallacy in this, it consists in assuming that they are taxed in the same proportion. Let us suppose an instance: *A* possesses 200 *l.* a year, perpetuity—*B* possesses 200 *l.* a year in the short annuities: if they can with justice be deemed equal in this year, they certainly were so in the last year; and by whatever arguments their equality is established, the same must apply to the succeeding years as long as the annuity exists; yet, when *B* arrives at the last year of his annuity, it is evident that the tax will be 10 per cent. on his capital. By making no distinc-

tions,

tions, the tax is not proportioned to real ability. The only remedy left to the possessor of short annuities is that of carrying them to market, and converting them into perpetuities.

Art. 38. *Redemption and Sale of the Land-Tax.* Thoughts on that interesting Subject; &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

This pamphlet contains a strict examination of all the clauses in the original act, and in the act for its explanation and amendment. The author points out many embarrassments and difficulties to which, in some cases, a purchaser may become liable, notwithstanding the amendments; and those who are more particularly interested in this subject, and who are desirous of information, may find their time well bestowed in the perusal of his observations.

Art. 39. *Proposals for paying off the Whole of the National Debt,* and for reducing Taxes immediately. By Henry Mertins Bird, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

This plan is not new, but is more fully digested and explained by Mr. Bird than by his predecessors. From the estimates of Mr. Hooke and Sir William Pulteney, (making allowance for advance in rents, for inclosures, and for increase of buildings and of trade, since their estimates were made,) Mr. B. assumes that the value of all the *real* property in Great Britain is 1,250,000,000 *l.*, and that of the personal property, (taking the value of the national debt into the account,) 1,450,000,000 *l.* On a comparison, he shews that Mr. Pitt's estimate of the *real* property agrees with this statement, allowing land to be worth twenty-seven years' purchase, and houses worth nineteen. This we imagine to be something above the present market price. The total value of the funded debt on the 31st of December 1798, taking the consols at 55, and other stock in proportion, is calculated to be 277,526,159 *l.* This sum is to be increased by the amount of unfunded debt, and to be lessened by the amount of the sinking fund.

In remarking on this plan, it will not be necessary to enter farther into the particulars of the calculations. Mr. Bird computes that, if every proprietor of landed or personal property was to give up a *twelfth* part to the stockholder, and the stockholder likewise was to make a sacrifice of a *twelfth* part of his stock, all that part of the debt owing among ourselves would be discharged; and he proposes to redeem the part of the debt due to foreigners, by raising a new loan, the interest of which he calculates at 2,280,000 *l.* The whole amount of the interest and expence of management on the debt, at present, is 16,272,805 *l.*; accordingly, the saving to the public by the sacrifice of one twelfth of property would be taxes to the annual amount of 13,992,805 *l.*; and when it is considered that, by the operation of taxes, for every five millions that are produced to the exchequer, an increase of more than nine millions is occasioned in the price of the articles taxed, the whole benefit would probably not be less than equal to a return to each individual of ten per cent. for the sum advanced by him.

There is a difficulty, which has not escaped the author's notice, against which it would be necessary to guard in a very early stage of the

the business. The adoption of such a measure would be likely immediately to cause so great a rise in the funds, that the sum originally proposed would be very inadequate to the redemption,—unless some previous provision, with the approbation of the public, should be made, to restrain the rise; and this might be done by fixing a price, at a small advance above what the market price should be at the time of making such provision.

Having given this outline, we shall only observe on the plan, that, if the people and the government possessed sufficient virtue and wisdom resolutely to make the sacrifices necessary to its execution, and to the making secure provision against the power of mismanagement in future, (for without such *security*, it would be undertaking the luckless labours of a Sisyphus,) Great Britain would be placed in a state more prosperous than any that she has ever yet attained.

NOVELS.

Art. 40. *Octavia.* By Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman. 1798.

The incidents and personages of this work are trite and trifling, and the cant language of fashion is repeated till it fatigues: but some of the characters are well delineated, the dialogue is often sprightly, and the tendency of the whole is the promotion of virtue. To this end, instructive sentiments are sometimes delivered in a superior strain; as the advice of Colonel Greville to Octavia respecting marriage. The playfulness of Antonia and the amiable sensibility of Octavia are exhibited with ability: but neither the coquetry of the former, nor the latter's forward surrender of her affections, is consistent with the strict and *rustic* notions of propriety which are ascribed to them, and which are particularly asserted by Octavia herself, in opposition to the fashionably dissolute manners of Granby Hall.—Miss Arabin seems nearly related to Mrs. Arlbery, in Mrs. D'Arblay's Camilla.

Art. 41. *The Young Philosopher.* By Charlotte Smith. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

We have received so much pleasure from all Mrs. Smith's productions in this line of composition, that we feel certain of entertainment when we hear of a new performance from her pen.—Though we have not been altogether disappointed in the present instance, our pleasure has not been so great as on some former occasions; for we think that the interest of this work is by no means equal to some of her earlier pieces, and that the characters are not so well supported. We must however except the whole episode of Mrs. Glenmorris, the mother of the heroine; whose portrait, and that of Lady Kilbrodie, are nicely delineated and uniformly maintained.

Mrs. Smith cannot claim the praise of consistency in her political opinions. In the volumes before us they are of the *democratic* cast, widely different from those of *The Banished Man*;—which were equally opposite to the sentiments of *Desmond*.

The pointed and indiscriminating severity with which not only certain characters, but entire professions, are mentioned in this work, is a *trait* of which we cannot help expressing our disapprobation. The profession

profession of Law, in particular, seems to rouse, in a high degree, the angry passions of the author; and, accordingly, Lawyers of every rank are not only held up to contempt as men of narrow understandings and contracted souls, but to *hatred*, as knaves by profession; as men who live but by perverting justice, and who fatten on the spoils of misery. We must deny the propriety of thus reprobating in the aggregate a numerous class of men, because we question the truth of the general charge brought against them. We arraign the propriety of this practice for another reason, which perhaps ought to have not less weight with the writer who labours for the amusement and improvement of mankind:—namely, because it infallibly tends to instil into young minds, and to confirm where they already exist, very narrow and illiberal prejudices; fatal to the interests of benevolence, and calculated to mislead us in the conduct of life. That there are and always will be many bad men in a profession which, being conversant about property, holds out to integrity those temptations under which mankind have most frequently been found to sink, cannot be controverted: but it does not follow that it is just and useful to attempt to render odious a description of persons, without whom it is doubtful whether society in any advanced stage of civilization can exist:—for no society can exist without laws; and when laws become numerous and complex, as in an advanced state of society they must, it will be necessary that a class of men should exist, whose business it is to explain and apply them.

Though we do not deem this one of the best and most interesting of Mrs. Smith's productions, we can recommend it to the attention of our readers, as it possesses many of her distinguished excellencies, and in various scenes shews an intimate acquaintance with life and the secret recesses of the human heart.—Some poetical effusions are introduced, and display the same genius and sensibility which we have so often admired in this lady's composition.

MEDICAL.

Art. 42. *A Justification of the Right of every well-educated Physician of fair Character and mature Age*, residing within the Jurisdiction of the College of Physicians of London, to be admitted a Fellow of that Corporation, if found competent, upon Examination, in Learning and Skill. Together with an Account of the Proceedings of those Licentiates who lately attempted to establish that Right: including the Pleadings of the Counsel, and the Opinions of the Judges, as taken in Short-Hand by Mr. Gurney. By Christopher Stanger, M. D. Gresham Professor of Physic, and Physician to the Foundling Hospital. 8vo. pp. 499. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

The controversy between the Fellows of the College of Physicians and the Licentiates has been of long standing: the Licentiates (in whatever University they were educated) claiming a right to be admitted as Fellows, under the same circumstances which the College now considers as giving an exclusive right of admission to those who have graduated at Oxford, Cambridge, or Dublin. This question has at length been determined in the Court of King's Bench, and the decision of the Judges is fatal to the cause of the Licentiates. From this decision,

cision, Dr. Stanger, in a spirited address, appeals to the justice of the public: but we fear that the interference of the public will not greatly avail him.

The opinions of the several Judges on this question are thus fairly summed up by the Doctor:

'LORD KENYON decided the question between the college and the licentiates in favour of the former, on the ground that the existing bye-laws, taken together, were reasonable, though he admitted that better might be found. But Lord Kenyon confirmed the opinion of Lord Mansfield, that bye-laws which prevented the college from receiving into their body, *persons whom they thought and knew to be fit and qualified, were bad*; which implies, that all unreasonable obstacles to the incorporation of competent physicians are *bad.*

'MR. JUSTICE ASHHURST gave his opinion in favour of the college, on the distinct ground, that the existing bye-laws were reasonable regulations, for securing a *proper education and fitness* in candidates; from which it may be fairly inferred, that he agreed with Lord Mansfield and Lord Kenyon, that the college are not empowered, arbitrarily to confine, or to impose unreasonable restrictions upon admission.

'MR. JUSTICE GROSE was of opinion, that the college enjoy the power of regulating the time and mode of electing their members, and that the criteria of fitness required by the present bye-laws, *including those which extend admission to the licentiates*, are reasonable.

'MR. JUSTICE LAWRENCE has delivered an opinion, which sustains a more arbitrary power in the college than they ever contended for. His opinion would make this scientific institution, founded by a learned faculty, the benefits of which were originally extended impartially to all fit persons in a numerous profession, and expressly conveyed to their successors, an institution which was intended to distinguish and reward merit, as narrow and absolute as any petty corporate oligarchy in the kingdom. According to his opinion, it would be more advantageous to confine than to extend admission, and provided the offices of the corporation are filled, (and a sufficient number of persons licenced to practise,) the ends of the charter are attained. A Hervey and a Sydenham, as well as a Boerhaave and a Cullen, the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge, as well as those of Edinburgh and Leyden, may be equally rejected!'

Dr. Stanger thus concludes his justification:

'Notwithstanding this opinion, and that the power of admitting members is (since the late decision) in effect little less than arbitrary, let us hope that men so enlightened, and in their conduct as individuals so respectable, as the fellows in general are, may yet adopt in their corporate capacity those principles of justice and liberality which govern their private conduct.

'May they atone for their past measures, arrest the growing obloquy in which they are held by the public, reconcile themselves with a profession they have so long injured, and which, if united, may easily eclipse, and perhaps, annihilate their inconsiderable body.

'Let them revert to the principles of their institution, and the practice of their founders. Let them cherish and reward merit, promote

promote science, suppress impostors, and benefit the community. Let them adopt the advice of Lord Mansfield, and in conformity with the *trust and confidence reposed in them, admit all that are fit.* The college of physicians will then enjoy the consciousness of doing right, the approbation of mankind, the united exertions of the faculty, and the wishes of the community that they may for ever flourish.'

Amen! so be it! say we, most cordially: but while we say so, we do not flatter ourselves with the smallest hopes of seeing this good end accomplished.

POETRY *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 43. *The Villain's Death-bed;* or the Times, a Poem. Dedicated to whom it may concern. 4to. 2s. 6d. Bell, Oxford-street. 1798.

This seems to be one of those works which we cannot wholly and heartily either condemn or approve. The author's piety, patriotism, good principles, and upright intention, are so blended with what we fear will be called dull, heavy, obscure, and puritanical passages, that the motly thing "we know not what to call,

Its generation's so equivocal."

The personifications are too numerous, and some of them are awkward; many of the periods are Bunyan "done into verse;" and the personalities are too gross and abusive. The author very soon puts to death the Villain, his hero, and then seems to forget the title of his book.

Some of his satire, however, is just; his eulogium on Benevolence is good; his effusion on Omnipotence is grand and reverential; and his character of this country and its inhabitants is highly coloured, spirited, and a strong likeness. We shall therefore select our specimen not from the weeds, but from the flowers, of the author's poetic garden.

Speaking of the inordinate ambition of France, and her exterminating threats against this country, the author's patriotism and indignation are well expressed:

'——Whilst her proud neighbour thirsts for boundless rule,
True to the Lessons of the despot school,——
———Whilst envy, avarice, and ambition's rage
Link ev'ry art and every crime engage
To work her final—utter overthrow!—
She basely calls the stroke Revenge's blow!
Revenge!—
Perdition catch the tongue of tortur'd sense!
——Revenge!—for what?—Revenge for self-defence.

Is there a country, who with prudence blest,
And cautious foresight far above the rest,
Who, timely wise, dread mischief to prevent,
Shall not in rage's burning tears repent;
Whose sons are valiant, and in Freedom's cause,
Will live, or die, whose freedom is their laws;

Who

Who grapples Danger—fill'd with Virtue's scorn,
Holds fast the birthright of her sons unborn;
Who midst a sinking world, still rears her head,
And midst surrounding ruin knows no dread?
Who vows to twine, ere arduous combat cease,
Stern Honor's laurels with the boughs of Peace;
With conscious justice, loving peace that dares,
Rush furious foremost in the crash of wars;
Who loves fair Peace, and strong in useful toils,
The cruel darings of Ambition foils;
Who, nobly brave, takes to her fostering breast,
The bleeding honors of her foes distrest;
Nor knows, to treat, mid sanguine war's wild wage,
Fallen, detested cruelty with rage;
Whose heart, to danger flint, yet pity there,
Melts ages' hatred with a single tear:
Who brave, yet patient, skilled in arts of peace,
Whose labours and invention never cease,
Whatever is of use still thirsts to find,
Seeks her own good and that of all mankind;
On whose world-honored, high and faithful name,
Gaunt envy looks with rage,—defying shame!
In whose strong soil, fair Liberty's true root,
Is deep implanted, bearing wholesome fruit,
Not poisonous berries like the noxious weed
From madd'ning Anarchy's destructive seed,
Where the strong plant shall latest ages see,
Rever'd and honor'd as the parent tree!
——Is there a country ——— tell her name,
In whom the living spark of antient fame
Bursts into broader, into brighter flame,
And ardent burns a sinking world to save
From Ignominy's dark o'erwhelming wave?'

Art. 44. *Hezekiah, King of Judah*; or, Invasion repulsed and Peace restored. A Sacred Drama. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nicol. 1798.

Before we enter on the merits of this production, we shall bestow a few words on the Preface; in which we find the following passage:

'So far from perceiving any just reason why a religious Drama, under due correction, should not be brought on the stage, *where* all people are attracted; the author sees the fitness, propriety, and utility, of its exhibition, from the solemn satisfaction an audience obtains on hearing, in Lent, Oratorios, whose subjects are often the most sacred, particularly the Messiah, the difference being that the last is sung, and the other acted as well as sung.'

Now though the drama, in almost every country in which it has been cultivated, had its rise in religious ceremonies and festivals; (as *Tragedy* from a hymn in honour of Bacchus; *Comedy*, at Rome, to appease the gods during a pestilence; *Mysteries* and *Moralities* among Christians were miraculous events from the sacred writings, or moral instructions from the lives of saints and martyrs dramatized, and represented in action at great festivals in churches and convents; and

Oratorios, in the church of San Filippo Neri and La Vallicella at Rome;) yet we cannot wish to see sacred dramas represented now on the same stage with secular dramas, in which delicacy and decorum have not been always rigidly observed, and on which, consequently, religious subjects would be degraded and contaminated by being alternately performed with the witty but licentious pieces of Congreve, Vanbrugh, and their imitators.

In the performance of Oratorios in still life, with books in the hands of the singers, the patriarchs, saints, and martyrs, are imaginary; and the solemnity of the sentiments and music helps us to personify those holy characters in perusing the words, without looking for them on the stage.

When religious dramas were admitted in the service of the Temple, Christian or Pagan, there were no secular dramas with which they could be compared: but now to bring the church to the theatre, or the theatre to the church, would be equally improper and hazardous. Different sects would have different prejudices to attack or defend; and if a sentiment were uttered, repugnant to the faith of Catholic, Lutheran, or Calvinist, we should have saints, martyrs, and fathers of the church, applauded and hissed by turns, in the conflict of warring opinions, under the usual licence of a mixed audience,—besides the clash that may happen in political tenets.

We think that this drama has considerable merit with respect to the poetry, character, and conduct; and, but for the objections urged above, it might, if well set to music, be brought on the stage with some expectations of success. As an Oratorio, if arranged into alternate air and recitative, with occasional choruses, it would be superior to the words of many of the Oratorios set by the immortal HANDEL. There are, indeed, inaccuracies both in the writing and printing which we have not room to specify; and some of the scenes, speeches, and allusions, are too much pointed for the present time, however necessary the author may have thought them at a more early and critical period.

If we could allow space for extracts, we should perhaps select them from the hymns, intended to be sung in chorus: the dialogue, also, is sometimes spirited: but the most pleasing of the metrical compositions seems to be the *Ode to Peace*, in the last act, from which we present our readers with the following stanzas:

'Dove-eyed Peace, with silver wing,
Mild as light, and soft as spring,
Hither in thy chariot haste,
With delight and plenty grac'd.

'Horrid War, with snaky locks,
Monster, which all Nature shocks;
Hence to Hell, and quit this earth,
Where thou claim'st thy direful birth.

'Now the kids, and fleecy flocks,
Frisking calves, and lowing ox,
Shall, in verdant pastures blest,
Feed secure, and sleep in rest.'

Art.

Art. 45. *Poetic Bagatelles.* 4to. 2s. Portsmouth, Mowbray & London, Richardson.

Although the above title consists but of two words, one of them might well have been spared. The contents of the pamphlet undoubtedly are *Bagatelles* ✓ but they certainly are not POETIC:—nor are they *any thing* that we can much commend.—Yet some of the *choice pieces* in this collection will probably set the table in a roar, at the "Three Jolly Butchers" in Carnaby Market.

Art. 46. *Amatory Odes, Epistles, and Sonnets*; the Productions of an uneducated Youth. 8vo. 1s. V. Griffiths, Paternoster-row.

The modesty of this uneducated youth * will not allow us totally to condemn this his first publication; nor would we willingly discourage his future efforts, which may be followed by that improvement to which he seems laudably to aspire. We meet with lines in these juvenile pieces, which may secure their author from the unrelenting frown of the muse whose favour he so ardently solicits; and as he seems laudably ambitious of gaining her smiles by higher desert, let his claim to the critic's indulgence be duly accepted, and the following plea be admitted in his favour:

'Let not the pride of Literature scorn
This frank acknowlegement to candour giv'n.
Before the perfect day appears the dawn,
Nor soars the lark at once to heav'n.'

Art. 47. *Due Tragedie*, &c. Two Tragedies, by G. Polidori, Master of Languages, London. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Dulau and Co. &c. 1798.

The first of these dramas is intitled *Isabella*, (Queen of Philip II. of Spain). Otway and Schiller have written plays on the same subject, called *Don Carlos* Prince of Spain. We shall not enter on a close examination of this drama; as the requisite time and space for discussing its merits would exceed our limits for productions of this kind, not in our own language, nor exhibited on our stage. In a hasty perusal, however, there seems to be merit in the writing, and the incidents appear to arise naturally out of each other.

The second Tragedy has for title, GERNANDO. The scene is laid at Messina in Sicily: but we know not whether the fable be invented, or historical. The hero is a tyrannical prince, who has ravished the heroine, *Emirena*, affianced to a lover on whom she has fixed her affection; and to whom she was soon to be joined in wedlock. The lady, like another *Lucretia*, has stabbed herself, though not mortally. Her ravisher offers to make reparation by marriage and a crown: but her detestation of him, and affection for her first love, make her reject his offers with horror. On this refusal, she, her father, and her lover, are imprisoned. The ravisher's brother heads a rebellion against him, and besets his palace, in order to rescue the prisoners:—but the latter are threatened with instant death, if the insurgents do not depart. In order to save their lives, the king's brother prevails on his followers to disperse, and surrenders himself a prisoner to the monarch; who, at length, finding the injured lady inflexible, and nei-

* The name, John Jones, is signed to the Preface.

ther

ther to be tempted by a crown nor terrified by the fear of death, relinquishes the pursuit, and liberates her father, her lover, and herself. After this magnanimous sacrifice, he desires to be left alone—when, in utter despair of future happiness, he stabs himself—bequeathing his kingdom to his brother: as 'neither that nor all the kingdoms of the earth could render existence bearable, without the possession of the inexorable fair, whom, in a fit of unbridled passion, he had injured.'

This is reversing the fate of TARQUIN: he was punished by the loss of a kingdom: GERNANDO punished himself not only by a voluntary resignation of his crown, but of life.—*Lucretia* would not survive the loss of her honour.—*Emirena* reconciles herself to this loss, when she finds that it is no impediment to her union with the man of her heart.

Art. 48. *Theodore*; or the Gamester's Progress. A Poetic Tale. Small 8vo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

This author begins with holding out comfort to tender-hearted readers, by anticipation: informing them that they shall soon

'Change sorrow's bitter tears to tears of bliss;'

and again, in the same page, lest the terror or pathos should be too powerful in its effects, he assures them that

'Revenge and anger, hatred and despair—
—— Terror shall excite
But for a time.'

Yet, during that time, as Master *Bottom* would say,

"Let the readers look to their eyes."

Indeed the prefatory information seems as consoling as that of Master *Snug*, who frankly says

"I, one Snug the joiner am,
No Lion fell."

Our author's prologue, like that of Shakspeare's Lion, seems to say that "that he will do no harm;" and, *morally*, he may say it with truth; for his plan and principles are good: but we fear that they are not enforced with either energy or novelty sufficient to stimulate attention in the thoughtless and depraved, or to flash conviction on the minds of the veteran votaries of chance.

Common thoughts, expressed in common language, and unembellished with poetical imagery, will probably not obtain much public favour by a mechanical arrangement of syllables, into what is called *verse*; which has no other effect than to impede and embarrass the progress of the Tale. The narrative might have been woven into a prose novel: but something more is wanting in a poem than mere matters of fact. As a relation of domestic events, arising from probable incidents, the Tale is interesting. The measure in which it is written, being a kind of dramatic verse bordering on prose, which seems most appropriate to dialogue, is the least censurable when used at the gaming-table, as in Part VI. p. 79.

On the whole, we mean not to say that this production is devoid of merit. It was unfortunate that we began to peruse it as a *Poem:* for, when we forgot that it was verse, and attended to the *tale*, we pursued our course with some degree of eagerness and pleasure.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 49. *The Theory of Chess;* a Treatise, in which the Principles and Maxims of this Game, or rather Science, are clearly and concisely explained; as concisely at least, as it might be adviseable to attempt. Including Directions for Playing, modelled and arranged in an original Manner: accompanied with necessary Illustrations. 8vo. pp. 107. 2s. 6d. sewed. Bagster. 1799.

Although we pretend not to be adepts at the game of chess, we cannot at all approve the change of names for the pieces proposed in this publication; nor do we think that the game ought to be consecrated to Minerva instead of Mars. Chess, and its forms and ceremonies, ought ever to remain unaltered. Its motto is in good Spanish "*Antes muerto que mudado,*" "I would sooner die than change." It is moreover a military game of the highest antiquity, descending to us from India through China, or *vice versâ;* and the earliest boards of the latter people had a river between the combatants, or parties, and one of their pieces was a cannon. From this circumstance, we may infer two things; that the game is a war-like game, and that India preceded China in the use of it,—unless we allow the high claims of the Chinese to the invention of gunpowder. The idea of chess presenting the *effigies belli* has been kept alive from the days of Confucius to those of Don John of Austria; and the Duke of Weimar played with real soldiers on black and white squares. This was the *Echiquier vivant* of which the reader may see more in Rabelais, and in Hyde *de ludis Orientalibus.*

The editor says that he wishes to meet the French on their own ground; and as they have forbidden the use of aristocratical names in the game of chess, so let us accommodate it to our own constitution,—and, as we do not put to death a piece when we take it, but only remove it from its place, in order to get into it ourselves, let us call the King a Minister, &c. &c.—but here he seems to forget that the parallel does not hold; for the King at chess, when he is mated, is killed;—check-mate is, the King is dead:—now a Minister may be killed, or die politically, without undergoing a natural dissolution.

Art. 50. *The Coffee Planter of St. Domingo;* with an Appendix, containing a View of the Constitution, Government, Laws, and State of the Colony, previous to the Year 1789. To which are added, some Hints on the present State of the Island, under the British Government. By P. J. Laborie, LL. D. Planter in the North of St. Domingo, and Member of the Superior Council. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Half bound. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

This is a very curious and in some respects a very valuable performance. The author's knowlege of the French colonial system, under the antient government, is accurate and profound. In no other book have we met with so clear, exact, and perfect an account of the laws and constitution of St. Domingo, before the Revolution, as we

find in this publication. The writer treats, with extraordinary precision, of its legislature,—executive government,—courts of justice, revenues, and taxes;—establishments religious and military,—its culture, its produce, and its commerce;—and he has subjoined what he calls 'HINTS concerning the British possessions in St. Domingo.' On the last-mentioned subject, however, he is not quite so explicit as he clearly shews he might have been.—*Much more is meant*, in some of his *hints, than meets the eye*.—As a proof of this, we recommend to his readers an attentive perusal of the passage in the Appendix, p. 136, beginning at 'General Williamson,' &c. and ending at the word 'prize,' near the close of the page following.

The greatest part of the work, however, as the title gives room to expect, is appropriated to the growth and cultivation of Coffee. We have not read this part with peculiar attention, as not being experimentally competent to speak of its merit: but, as far as we can judge, his instructions contain little that was not sufficiently known before to the British Coffee-Planters.—It is a ridiculous circumstance, but it is true, that the British and French Planters in the West Indies consider each other as mere bunglers. Now the fact is, that no improvement can be made in the system of agriculture, in any one island in that part of the world, which can long be concealed from the rest. The French, it is true, have carried the cultivation of coffee to a greater extent than the British: but it was not from the want of skill in the latter, that this article was neglected in our islands; it was owing to high and exclusive duties on its importation into Great Britain.—This subject has been fully discussed in Mr. Edwards's excellent history of the West Indies.

Art. 51. *A Narrative of the Seizure and Confinement of Ann Brookhouse*, who was assaulted in one of the Streets of London, and carried off by two hired Ruffians, May 7, 1798, and detained in close Imprisonment, till August 25th following; as related by herself: written by a Friend. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons, &c.

An astonishing account of a respectable young woman, who, after having been watched and way-laid by two villains at the instigation of a greater, was forcibly carried off to some unknown house, and there detained, as expressed in the above title. A relation of this extraordinary outrage having been imperfectly detailed in the public papers, the unfortunate sufferer publishes this narrative chiefly with a view of protecting herself from those misrepresentations, or unjust suspicions, to which she might be exposed; as insinuations, it is said, have been already levelled against her. It is easy to apprehend that the infamous beings, who have so grossly insulted her, may be sufficiently artful in obtaining means, apparently at least, to weaken the credit of her story, and otherwise to injure her reputation. Application was made to Mr. Bleamire, at the Police-office, Hatton-garden, who readily gave them advice, but continued to the last firmly persuaded that little or nothing could be done to any effect: of a similar opinion were the clerks at the office in Bow-street: but it appears rather a strange and untoward circumstance, that, after having attended more than once, no opportunity could be gained of addressing Mr. Bond *personally* on the subject.—We observe nothing in the narrative (com-

mon as imposition is) that should create a suspicion of its veracity; yet there are those who consider the whole story as a fiction.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, Nov. 29, 1798.

Art. 52. Preached at the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal. By John Lord Bishop of Chichester. 4to. 1s. Robson.

That our uninterrupted naval victories should inspire us with a grateful sense of the divine favour might reasonably be expected; and that this gratitude should be followed by a reformation in our lives and manners, every good man must wish. To forward this purpose, a day of public thanksgiving was appointed; in which the clergy were expected to enforce this duty by every argument which might tend to influence us as men and as Christians. On such a subject, where our patriotic feelings are so deeply interested, it might be difficult to keep entirely clear of politics: but to those parts of the discourse before us which are thus employed, we may refer in general terms: rather particularizing the Bishop's just and concise eulogium on the gallant Nelson.

'Whilst Atheists, amid their victories, crown the statues of their favourite idols, Reason and Liberty; our Hero, no less religious than brave, ascribes the honour of the day to "the Lord of Hosts;" the Governour and Judge of the Universe; to God, omniscient and omnipotent.'

The following passage is less happily expressed; at least, on the first perusal, we found some difficulty in comprehending of it:

'Let us, now, turn our thoughts from public exultation to private enquiry; and seriously examine, how far we, of this nation, have deserved these providential favours. Happy will it be for us, if national pride end not in personal humiliation! happy will it be, eventually, if, by the calamities we have suffered in war, "God has not punished us less than our iniquities deserve:" and still happier will it be, if "such deliverances," as he has given us, should so work upon our gratitude and our discretion, that we may not "again break" the divine "commandments;" nor "join in affinity" with our irreligious neighbours, "the people of the abominations," lest we cause God to "be angry with us, till he consume us!"

The remaining part of the sermon consists chiefly in exhortations to repentance and amendment; and the conclusion is such as, we believe, every person must approve:

'Oh, let not our unexampled successes dazzle us into a false estimate of our own virtues, nor prompt us to conclude, that we have a prescriptive right to the protecting favour of Heaven. Let us neither arrogantly presume on the permanency of God's assistance, nor ungratefully distrust it; but let our experience of "God's goodness lead us to repentance*." Let his reiterated kindness excite us to an uniform purity of heart and life; to humility, and diligence in our religious duties; and, healed by the Almighty hand, let us, like the grateful Samaritan, return instantly, with joy, to give glory

'* Rom. ii. 4.'

to

to our benefactor and our God; that so, by our fervent zeal to please and obey God, we may justly hope to secure his blessing to us.'

Art. 53. Preached in the Chapel of Mile-End-New-Town. Stepney. By the Reverend John Cottingham, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Gardner, &c.

Hamlet says, "Is this a prologue, or the posy of a Ring?" We might with equal propriety ask whether the pamphlet before us be a sermon, or a political harangue: but whatever title it may bear, the author is not sparing of his labour, for it extends through 50 pages, and contains a great variety of matter. We have the history of the Spanish Armada, of the gun-powder plot, of the revolution of 1688—with some remarks on the timely death of Queen Anne, and the settlement of the crown on the House of Hanover;—followed by an encomium on liberty *properly understood*, and the English constitution:—then, a representation of the great importance of the victories obtained at sea by the British arms;—and the duty of expressing a grateful sense of the mercies which we have received is strongly inculcated, though mixed with all this extraneous matter. We cannot compliment the author either on his style, or on the arrangement of his subject: but he seems to be actuated by a love for his country, and by an unfeigned regard for religion and virtue.

Art. 54. Preached at the Meeting-House in Hanover-Street, Long Acre. By Robert Winter. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Various circumstances being here enumerated as calling for national praise and gratitude, Mr. Winter then points out and recommends with energy the proper improvement of these benefits. The discourse manifests the author's good sense, piety, and benevolence.

Art. 55. Preached at the Foundling-Hospital. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

'In fulfilling (says the preacher) the duties of the present day, it is not necessary for us to perplex our minds with any embarrassing enquiries about *relative* good and evil;—all that is required of us is *to be thankful*. The Almighty Father knoweth the imperfection of his children, and that "his ways are not *their* ways."—In conformity to this sentiment, Mr. H. proceeds to display, in a well composed and sensible harangue, those subjects which call for national thanksgiving, crowned by the late naval victories. On the reformation from popery he dwells for some time: but we do not perceive any particular notice of the revolution in 1688, to which the epithet *glorious* has been so long and so generally attached. He concludes by recommending a regard to the peace and happiness of mankind, as the ultimate end of all virtuous exertion; and he hopes that a principle of *self-defence* will justify our conduct, and that 'our thanksgivings may be so tempered with humility, the desire of *peace*, and love for our fellow-creatures, that we may appear not entirely unworthy of the mercies we enjoy, and the deliverance we have experienced.'

Art. 56. Preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, before the Lord-Mayor, the Aldermen, &c. By Thomas Bowen, M. A. Chaplain to the Lord-Mayor. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

The title prefixed to this discourse is, '*The efficacy of courage in a good cause*;' a proposition, which this author considers as illustrated in

in an eminent degree by our late victory in Egypt, and also by the defeat of the French on the coast of Ireland. His manner is rather of a superior cast, and his expression is energetic. While he celebrates in high terms the conduct of Lord Nelson, as 'exhibiting to surrounding nations the bright example of a *Hero* and a *Christian*,' he warns his audience and the reader against being 'seduced by lying prophets, with the sound of 'peace, peace, when there is no peace.'—'With France (he asserts) no peace can be safe, but such an one as we have power to compel.—And whence can we derive that power, if not from the glorious victories with which the Almighty has crowned our arms? The *vantage*-ground on which we stand is high and commanding, and, I trust, we shall never quit it but for a peace that is honourable and secure.'—Happy indeed will these *victories* prove, if productive of so great a blessing!

Art. 57. Preached before the Gentlemen of the St. George's Southwark Volunteers, and of the Southwark Volunteer Cavalry, in the Parish-Church of St. George the Martyr, Southwark. By the Rev. W. Mann, M. A. 4to. Printed for the Author.

This is to be considered as an extemporaneous effusion, yet not without some premeditation; and indeed, as the occasion was peculiar, the author informs us that 'it occupied a few more hours than usually fall to the lot of his ordinary discourses.' Having no expectation of a request to make it public, he had, previously to its delivery, no notes, nor any written plan, even for his own direction:—but, as the desire of the gentlemen volunteers was unanimous, he had recourse to recollection, and 'though he cannot vouch for every word, he is able to do it for the whole of the plan, and for very much of the expression.' Mr. M. disclaims all politics;—'I do not understand, I do not profess to understand (he says) the politics of the nation,—it is not as a politician, but as a divine, that I address you, and I would willingly not only give no offence to any party, but edify all parties, by the mention of those things which all must mutually acknowledge.'—Accordingly, he applies himself to offer such observations and reflections as might prove beneficial to his audience, and to the readers of the discourse. The expressions of *fighting for your God*, &c. might, perhaps, require some explication: but we find little to censure and much to approve in the sermon. The language, plain and suitable, might have been improved by preventing a repetition of the same words, which in one or two instances occur too nearly to each other.

Art. 58. Preached at the Free Church in Bath. By the Reverend William Leigh, LL. B. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

The *Free Church* is a building lately erected and opened with the benevolent design of accommodating the poorer inhabitants in the populous city of Bath: a short account of it is added to this discourse. Mr. Leigh proposes to *illustrate the interposition of Divine Providence*, with a particular view to our late naval victories. (*Is.* xxxvii. 28, 29.) He thinks that he discerns a similarity in the conduct of Sennacherib king of Assyria, and the destruction of his army in the reign of Hezekiah king of Judah, to the boasting behaviour and late naval defeat of

of the French people; and he is at some pains, in a note, to draw the parallel. The language of Bonaparte among the Musselmans he apprehends, agrees well with the blasphemy and insolence of the Assyrian General.—However this may be, to inculcate a due regard to the Divine over-ruling Providence is certainly right and useful; and the sermon is very well written.

Art. 59. Preached in the Parish-Churches of Lockington and Lund, in the East-Riding of the County of York. By the Rev. John Courtney, M. A. 4to. 1s. Printed at York.

Without inquiring concerning the origin of the present war, or whether opportunities of pacification have or have not been suffered to pass by, Mr. C. presumes that at *this* moment there is but one opinion; viz. that it is now a war of defence. In the sermon, and especially in the notes, the reader will observe plain indications of a liberality of sentiment. Having mentioned with approbation the titles conferred on some of our admirals, the author adds in a note,

'Meritorious services, whether performed in the cabinet or the field, have equal claims on a grateful people. But when men are content to purchase the *Purpureum Amictum* at the price of their birth-right, (their freedom of speech and their liberty,) they surely deserve our utmost contempt.

"*Longè mea discrepat istis*
Et vox et ratio——"

Mr. Courtney delivers sensible and useful remarks on the subject of Divine Providence, and endeavours to awaken his hearers to gratitude for our late successes.—In a farther note, he acknowleges himself unwilling to say much on the subject of *peace*, lest he should take off from the general joy on the immediate occasion of his discourse; and he afterward adds,—'let us hope that we shall avoid all future connection with the continental powers, except such as is necessary for the purposes of commerce!'

Art. 60. Preached in the County of Durham. 4to. 1s. Longman.

This short and anonymous discourse very properly offers to our consideration, reasons or motives for thankfulness, particularly in a national view. The author seasonably remarks, in connection with his text, that we readily censure the insensibility and ingratitude of the Jews, but forget that Christians are equally reprehensible; and he proceeds briefly to recommend the thankfulness of the heart, expressed by a good and virtuous life. Dr. Horne's commentary on the book of Psalms seems a favourite work with this preacher, and some of his phrases savour of Hutchinsonianism.—In an appendix, he delivers his opinion that the present period of time is, in the language of prophecy, *the fifth vial*; and he censures the conclusion of Mr. King and others, that "Rome is fallen;" he acknowleges that *the head* of the *beast*, or its *temporal power*, is destroyed: but its total extinction, he conceives, will be gradual.

Other SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 61. Preached at the Meeting-House in Little Wild-Street, Lincoln's Inn-Fields, November 27, 1798, in Commemoration of the great Storm in 1703. By Robert Winter. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

This

This discourse regards an awful occurrence, which at the time impressed all persons with some degree of grief and terror. It is now very much forgotten; though the faithful page of history cannot fail to record it. Government, at the instant, considered the appointment of a public fast as requisite and suitable. One gentleman, united to a Christian society above-mentioned, provided for an annual commemoration of an event so surprising and direful, which, we here find, is continued to this day. Mr Winter presents us with a concise and judicious account of the calamity; and from a consideration of that divine power over the elements of nature, with which the author of the Christian faith was endued, and which he employed, he directs his audience to some suitable practical reflections.

Art. 62. *Addressed to the Armed Association, and to the Inhabitants of the Parish of St. Mary, Battersea*; September 23, 1798. By the Rev. John Gardnor, Vicar of Battersea. 4to. 1s. Baldwin.

This preacher professes to leave the justification of the part which England has taken in the present war, together with a description of the *impiety*, *profligacy*, and *cruelty* of the enemy, to others of higher talents and better information; whose productions, however, he applauds; adding 'I shall take you into a more humble, but a more untrodden path, and offer inducements to your zeal, your patriotism, and your courage, from our being *brethren*, participating the blessings of the *same* political constitution, the *same* equitable laws, and the *same* religious hopes.' He declares himself, in the most unequivocal terms, a friend to free discussion and inquiry: in all sects and parties, he asserts, from his own knowlege, there are good and honourable men, of which he has 'numerous, satisfactory, and pleasing proofs;' and he proceeds earnestly to recommend, to ALL, the spirit and practice of *Christian love and union*, particularly in a time of public danger. The discourse manifests sterling sense, conveyed in good language.

The sermon is published by request; and one reason assigned by Mr. G. for his consent is that 'a cold and hoarseness prevented his being heard by a numerous congregation.' A farther motive arises from some unfortunate disputes once subsisting in the parish, which, it is said, are now happily terminated.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot agree in opinion with G. T. who, like Falstaff with Hotspur, would give fresh wounds to the dead, in order to *make sure of them*. The subject to which he refers has been so fully discussed, and the empiricism of it has been so completely exposed, that its ghost is too harmless to require to be laid.

A Whig is referred to our Number for September last.—We are sorry that we cannot answer the other question of this correspondent.

General Vallancey's second letter is just received.

The communications of D. T. (Yarmouth) and I. A—n, are under consideration.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1799.

ART. I. *The View of Hindustan.* 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. White. 1798.

INDIA and Hindustan are appellations bestowed, somewhat arbitrarily, on the fair and fertile region which is bounded by the Indus on one side, while on the other it stretches beyond the eastern banks of the majestic Brahmaputro; the lofty mountains of Imaus forming its boundary on the north, and the ocean washing its southern extremities. The natives, however, know those appellations only as foreign terms. The Greeks probably called the inhabitants of the western countries, Indians, for the same reason that we find the Gangaridæ seated near the Ganges. The word Hindu-stan is a Persic compound, signifying the country of black people, as we say Negroe-land; and it seems remarkable that Siam, or Siama-stan, as it is named in Sanscrit, should have the same signification in that language, which Hindustan bears in Persic. If it were meant to include, under the latter term, all the countries inhabited by Hindus,—that is, by a people professing the doctrine of the Vedas, and speaking a dialect of the Sanscrit,—the boundaries are manifestly too contracted, and ought probably to extend as far as Tartary on the north, and to China on the east. On the other hand, if by the word Hindustan it were intended to designate the specific limits of one great empire, to what period shall we assign its existence? Ramachundra, (the hero of a sublime epic poem, entitled Ramayon,) whose capital was contiguous to the modern city of Fyzabad, in the province of Oude, certainly carried his arms as far as Ceylon; unless we class his expedition with the fabled exploits of a Sesostris, or a Semiramis: but the extent of his dominions laterally is unknown. Alexander found the country divided into a number of petty sovereignties. Sultan Mahmûd had the same good fortune; Lahor, Multan, Delhi, Agimer, and Canoja, had each a Rajah, and each of them met a conqueror in Mahmûd. The Mogul empire attained its greatest extent about the middle of Aurengzebe's reign, but it never embraced the whole of Hin-

dustan. The Rajahs who ruled in the peninsula, and whose ancestors had founded their independence on the ruins of the Vijanagar empire, preserved their petty but inaccessible territories, while the more powerful monarchies fell before the Mogul invaders.

The volumes before us furnish a pleasing specimen of that persevering industry and diligent research, which have so long distinguished the venerable author. Mr. Pennant began the composition of them in his 71st year, and extracted the materials from the 14th and 15th volumes of a manuscript work, entitled "Outlines of the Globe," the whole of which may one day see the light. The following plan has been adopted in that portion of it now presented to the public:—After having traced the Indus and its tributary streams from their source to their confluence with the ocean, and given some account of the antient and modern condition of the cities and provinces in its vicinity, the author proceeds in the same manner along the coast to Cape Comorin. The rivers which disembogue themselves within that extent of maritime border are also deduced from their origin; and, as most of the principal places are contiguous to one of them, the work includes a tolerably complete geographical view of the whole country. The natural productions are particularized; the manners and customs of the inhabitants are sometimes mentioned; and the curiosities of nature or art are described as they occur. From Cape Comorin, the author passes into Ceylon; and after having made a circuit of the island, he returns to the continent, resumes his survey, and proceeds along the coasts of Coromandel, Selingana, Orissa, and Bengal, to the point at which the united floods of the Ganges and Brahmaputro mix with the sea.

This work can derive but little merit from novelty; for who is unacquainted with the classical recreations of Sir William Jones, the geographical accuracy of Major Rennell, or the comprehensive remark of M. Bernier?—Mr. Orme, Mr. Gladwin, Col. Dow, Capt. Scott, and the narratives of the late wars, have supplied Mr. P. with historical information; and the previous labors of our author himself, of Dr. Roxburgh, of Dr. Russel, and of the naturalists of Ceylon, have furnished the materials for natural history; while the views taken by Mr. Hodges and Mr. Daniel have enabled him to describe a great variety of magnificent structures. From these sources, Mr. Pennant has compiled an agreeable work; which, by avoiding abstruse inquiries, is calculated to please the generality of readers; and which, to persons who are unacquainted with the publications abovementioned, will add instruction to amusement.

Our

Our readers will be enabled to form a correct idea of the manner in which Mr. P. has executed this production, from the extracts that we shall now subjoin. We select such as relate to countries little known to Europe. In the first, they will find an account of the great river Crisna, (Mr. P. writes *Krishna*,) and its tributary waters.

'From Gangapatam, on the northern mouth of the Pennar, the land runs due north as far as Motapilli, when it forms a strong curve towards the east; the point of which is one side of the great river Crisna, in about lat. 15° 43'. Its Delta, which winds round as far as Masulipatam, is not considerable. This river annually overflows a vast tract of country, like the Indus on the western side of this empire, and like all the other great rivers on this extensive coast. The Crisna rises from the foot of the western Ghauts, and not more than forty-five miles from Severndrug, on the western coast. There is another branch to the east, that rises still more northerly. On the side is Sattara, a strong fortress, the capital of the Mahratta state, in the time of the Rajahs of Sivaji's race: it was taken by him in 1673, and found to be the depository of immense treasure; at that time it belonged to the king of Vijapur: it was afterwards used by the Mahrattas, as the lodgment of their riches, and also as a retreat for the more defenceless inhabitants of Puna, and other open towns, in time of potent invasions.

'The river continues descending to the east. In lat. 17° is Meritch, a strong fortress, with a Jaghirdar territory conquered from its owner by Hyder. In lat. 16° 45', a small river discharges itself into the Crisna from the north. It would not be worth mentioning, but that Pannela, a fortress of vast strength, was made by Sumbuji, the profligate son of Sivaji, his residence just before his surprisal in 1689, betrayed by Cablis Khan, the vile instrument of his pleasures, corrupted by Aurengzebe. His extravagant love of women brought on him ruin. Informed by Cablis that a Hindu of rank and great beauty was on her road to be delivered by the parents to her husband, according to the custom of the Hindus, he instantly put himself at the head of a small body of horse to carry off the prize, and ordered Cablis to follow at a distance for his protection, in case of accidents in that hostile time. The traitor had given notice to Aurengzebe of this expedition, who, sending a body of cavalry, surprised Sambaji just as he had dispersed the nuptial procession.'—

'Into the north side of the Crisna, in lat. 16° 20' falls the great river Bima, after a course of 350 miles. It rises at the head of the western Ghauts, parallel to Chaul in the Concan, and not above 50 miles from the sea. It descends rapidly towards the south-east. In lat. 17° 40' it receives a small river from the west, on the southern banks of which stands Vijapur, the capital of the famous kingdom of the same name, now possessed by the Mahrattas, but once governed by its own monarchs, till conquered by Aurengzebe in 1686. It was of great extent, and reached to the western sea, where it possessed the ports of Dabul, Vingorla, and Carapatan.

'The capital, Vijapur, is some leagues in circuit, seated in a fine but naked country, well watered. It makes a singular appearance

from an adjacent eminence, filled with numbers of small domes, and one of a majestic size. It was once a city of great splendor, and filled with palaces, mosques, mausoleums, and public and private buildings of great magnificence; many of them are fallen to ruin, and give melancholy proofs of its former splendor. I shall not attempt to detail them. The palaces of the Kings, and accommodations for their attendants, were within a vast fort, surrounded with a ditch a hundred yards wide; the depth appeared to be great, but is now filled with rubbish: within the fort is the citadel. Tavernier says, that the great ditch was filled with crocodiles, by way of garrison, to prevent all access by water. Lieutenant Moor has his doubts about this, imagining that there never was any water in this foss. That such garrisons have existed I doubt not. I have read in Purchas, that in Pegu, the fosses of fortified places were stocked with those tremendous animals, not only to keep out enemies, but to prevent desertion. This practice has certainly been of great antiquity in some parts of India: Pliny mentions it as used in a fair city of the Horatæ, a people I cannot trace.

'The Crisna, above and below its conflux with the Bima, is fordable; and a few miles below its channel is 600 yards wide, made horrid with the number and rudeness of the variously formed rocks, which are never covered but in the rainy season.

'The Tungbuddra is another vast branch of the Crisna. It falls into it, in lat. 16° 25′, and originates extremely south, from a doubtful fountain. Towards its lower part it divides into three or four small branches, which rise remote from each other; the most southern is the Curga Naïr's country; the most northern from the head of the Ghauts opposite to Onor, and scarcely 20 miles from the sea. What must give this river great celebrity, is its having had on its banks in lat. 15° 22′ the splendid city of Vijanagar. Ferishta says, that it was founded in 1344 by Belaldeo, king of the Carnatic, which in those days included the whole peninsula. It was visited by Cæsar Frederick, a Venetian traveller, in 1565, and found deserted and ruinous, having been sacked by four confederated Mahommedan princes two years before, on which its monarch had retired to Penuconda. Frederick says that its circumference was 24 miles. Mr. Rennell has given us a view of its present state from Lieutenant Emitt, who visited it in 1792.'—

'The ruins of Vijanagar are in the little Sircar of Anagundi, which does not extend above 20 miles around this vast city. It is very singular that that little Sircar is now possessed by a lineal descendant of Rama Rajah, the last great monarch of Vijanagar, and its attendant nations Canarine and Malabar, united 700 years before under the rule of Crisna Deva. Tippu wished to reserve this little tract to himself, for the satisfaction of generously restoring to the descendant the small relique of the great empire of his ancestors. He is denied the title of Rajah, instead of which he has the diminutive Raïl bestowed on him; this suitable to his revenues, which do not exceed two lacs of rupees, or 25,000 *per ann.* with the empty regality of a mint at Anagundi.'

As

As the Crisna offers nothing remarkable in the remainder of its course, we will change the scene; and, transporting our readers over the mountains of Budtan, to the capital of Tibet, will descend again with the Brahmaputro, till it reaches the province of Bengal.

'Cus Bahar is on the northern frontier of Bengal, where we had a factory for the sake of the commerce with Assam, and other adjacent countries. This town was attacked by the Budtias, who had never met in the plains any other than the timid Hindus flying naked before them, and who saw, for the first time, a body of men uniformly clothed and accoutred, moving in regular order, and led on by men of complexion, dress, and features such as they never beheld before; and then the management of the artillery, and incessant fire of the musquetry, was beyond any idea which they could have conceived of it. On the other hand, our people found themselves engaged with a race of men unlike all their former opponents in India, uncouth in their appearance, and fierce in their assault, wrapped in furs, and armed with bows and arrows, and other weapons peculiar to them.

'Immediately beyond Cus Bahar arises the great range of mountains which give admittance through their passes into Budtan, each of which, difficult as they are, is fortified. The ridge rises here a mile and a half in perpendicular height, and affords a most astonishing view over the plains of Hindustan almost immediately subjacent, and stretched beneath like a boundless ocean when it first bursts on the eye of the traveller; yet behind these rise other ranges of far superior heights, which soar with a majesty past the power of the pen to describe, and shew their snowy tops to the melting inhabitants of Bengal 150 miles distant.

'In the gorges of this first range, not far to the north-west of Cus Bahar, stands, on a lofty and rude pyramidal mountain, with a flatted head, the fort of Delamcotta. It is impossible for imagination to invent a ruder situation; the surrounding mountains are equally horrible, and approximate so near as to form only darksome chasms of immense depth. On the sides are narrow roads impending over dreadful precipices.'—

'On the borders of Budtan, after crossing the mountains from Cus Bahar, is the town of Buxaduar, seated on the flat top of a wooded hill, surrounded with others of conoid forms, covered with trees to their summits.'—

'At Chuca, about 38 miles farther to the north, is a specimen of a bridge, common in this country, but to others of a surprising structure, composed of iron chains, covered with planks, and stretched from precipice to precipice across the river. I have given a plate of this, done by a painter attendant on the embassy. Thirty-two miles farther north stand the castle and town of Punaca; a plate is also given of this. It represents the face of the country, and the style of building, and a view of the exalted mountains of snow, soaring above others, which any where else would astonish the traveller with their height.'—

'Forty-two miles north of Punaca is Tasisudon, the capital of Budtan. Between this city and Paradrong is the great Emodal chain, capt eternally with snow, the same which overtops the other snow-capt chains, and shews itself to the distant inhabitants of Bengal. This range is also the boundary between Budtan and the Lama's country, or Great Tibet. From this limit to the great river Brahmaputro, is in many places 150 miles in extent. The river Tista rises not far from the former, and hastens south through Budtan and Bengal, till it is lost near Dacca, in Bengal.

'This country rises into mountains of prodigious height. The summits eternally covered with snow, the sides with forests of stately trees of various kinds; some, such as pines, aspens, birch, cypress and yew, holly and elder; ash is uncommon, oaks have not yet been discovered in Budtan; firs, and others known in Europe, others again peculiar to this country and climate. Many of these forests are useless to mankind, being placed amidst rocks inaccessible. At their base, the vallies and sides are cultivated, and are productive of wheat, barley, and even rice. In the depth of the vallies, rush numbers of furious torrents; which, increasing in their course, and at length gaining the plains, are lost in the rivers of Bengal.

'Mr. Saunders tells us that at Buxaduar many of the plants of Bengal require culture, yet many of the plants of the torrid zone grow there in the wild jungles; for example, a species of plantain, (Musa,) with a broad leaf, useful for thatching; the Bengal kind will not thrive here. Twenty miles farther south are found two species of Cassia. In respect to European fruits, here are good orchards of peaches, apricots, apples, and pears; walnuts are not unfrequent, strawberries and bilberries are common, the first excellent. The arbutus uva ursi, common to Scotland and the Alps, is found here. The number of plants which grow under the name of weeds, common to this country, England, and other parts of Europe, is very great.

'Mr. Saunders speaks of a whitish quartz as used in the porcelain business; in parts, he met with a flinty spar of a sort of granite, and a pure limestone. On the front of a certain mountain, he was struck with the appearance of six or seven angulated semi pillars of great circumference, and some hundreds of feet high, projecting over a great cataract. Gold is found in form of dust, and in large quantities, and often in large lumps, and veins adhering to flint and quartz. There also are lead, iron, and copper.

'Rock salt and tincal, in vast quantities, from the bottom of a lake in Tibet. This last is got in great masses, but broken to pieces for the conveniency of carriage; it seems inexhaustible; the lake is 20 miles in circumference, seated bleakly, and frozen during a great part of the year. In Tibet it is used to solder with, and promote the fusion of gold and silver. Tincal is now discovered to be the substance which produces the salt Borax. It is of great use in the making of glass, and making artificial gems; it is employed also as a flux, and by dyers to give a gloss to silks.'—

'I now arrive at the banks of the Brahmaputro, (Mr. P. calls it *Burrampooter*,) and cross into the sacred land of Tibet.—It is named

named Sampu by the Tibetians, and rises in about lat. 32° 30′ north, east longitude from Greenwich 82° 40′, in the kingdom of Tibet, or country of the grand Lama, and on the opposite side of the same mountains which give rise to the Ganges. It takes an eastern direction for a considerable way, keeps confined in the vale of Tibet, between the vast chain of mountains, probably with a most rapid course. The cold of Tibet is very great, occasioned by the vast tract of snowy regions, which the northern wind passes over in its course *. Mr. Bogle found at Chanmaning, where he wintered, the thermometer in his chamber 29° below the freezing point, notwithstanding the lat. was in 31° 39′, or 8 degrees to the north of the burning Calcutta. In April, all the standing waters were frozen. In Tibet, the mountains are quite naked, and bear a very different aspect from those of Budtan. I may here observe that the inhabitants of Tibet, Budtan, Asam, and Tripura, are not less subject to goitres, or wens, than the inhabitants of the European Alps.

'The first city near its banks is Chanmaning; the next is Lassa, the capital of the kingdom, in lat. 30° 30′. The river washes the walls †, yet I do not find that Mr. Bogle makes any mention of its being navigable, notwithstanding it is above 600 miles from its source. I have been informed that in part of its course along Tibet, it is as broad as the Thames at Westminster. The city of Lassa is well built with stone, and has considerable commerce with China, chiefly by means of caravans; it also sends caravans to Senginlinski, in the Russian dominions in Siberia, by which it receives numbers of the manufactures of Europe. It is very populous, and of a considerable size; is the residence of the chief officers of government, and of the two Chinese mandarins and their suite. These mandarins have actually a garrison of 1000 men in the city. It is also inhabited by Chinese and Casmirian merchants and artificers, and is the daily resort of numberless traders, who come in occasional parties, or in stated caravans.

'Besides musk, the fine wool, and cow-tails, Tibet produces great quantities of gold, either washed from the sands of the Sampu, or the lesser rivers, or dug out of the mines. The Lama never uses any in his mint, but it is exchanged for the articles of commerce, particularly with the Chinese. Rhubarb is also an article of commerce. I may mention that Tibet supplies India with great variety of fine falcons. It is also famed for its breed of great dogs, which Marco Paolo says are almost as tall as an ass, and are much used in the chace of wild beasts.

'Beyond the river, opposite to Lassa, and immediately beyond the chain of mountains called Cambala, adjacent to the Sampu, is the vast lake of Palta, about 150 miles in circuit, so filled with a single island as to leave around it only 6 or 8 miles of water. The Lama resides about 7 miles from Lassa, at Putala, a vast palace, on a mountain near the banks of the Sampu. He is supposed to be immortal; it is true that he appears to die, but it is only the act of his removing

* Is it not principally occasioned by the elevation from the sea? *Rev.*

† Major Rennell places the city 24 miles north of the river. *Rev.*

into another body, that of an infant, who is discovered by the priests by a certain token known only to themselves, and is called the Dallai Lama.'—

'The women in Tibet are allowed a plurality of husbands. A set of brethren are allowed one wife in common, and they live in the utmost harmony together. True it is that a modest and virtuous lady, wife to half a dozen of the Taysu Lama's nephews, complained to the uncle that the two youngest did not contribute that share of love and benevolence to the common stock, which duty and religion required.'—

'The religion has in a few instances a resemblance to the Hindu; they have a great veneration for the cow, but confine it to the silk-tailed species of their own country; they highly respect the waters of the Ganges. One of the first effects of the peace between us and the Lama, was the obtaining leave to build a place of worship on the banks of the sacred river.

'The Dallai Lama is the great object of veneration of all the heathen Tartars, who every year come up from the most distant parts, and make rich offerings at his shrine. Even the Emperor of China, a Mantchew Tartar, acknowleges him in a religious capacity, and entertains, at vast expence, at his palace at Pekin, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Tibet. Numbers of Suniases, or Hindu pilgrims, visit Tibet as a holy place, and the Lama constantly entertained a body of 2 or 300 in his pay. The Tibetians are of a smaller size, and less robust make, than their southern neighbours the Budtias; their features are Tartarian; their dress like the Chinese, with a conical hat, light boots, and tunic of brocaded silk.'—

'After a long winding course through Tibet, the Sampu enters Asam, where it acquires the name of Brahmaputro. The capital of this country, Ghirgong, is in lat. 26° 30′. It has four gates, and the city is encompassed with a bound hedge of bamboos. The Rajah's palace is surrounded by a causey, planted on each side with a close hedge of bamboos, which serves instead of a wall. On the outside there is a ditch, which is always full of water. The Rajah's seat is adorned with lattice work and carving. Within and without have been placed plates of brass, so well polished, that when the rays of the sun strike upon them they shine like mirrors. It is an ascertained fact, that 3000 carpenters and 12,000 labourers were constantly employed in this work during two years before it was finished.'—

'The Asiatic Researches speak much of the wealth of Asam, and of the plenty and excellency of its natural productions, and that it abounds in all metals but tin. Gold is produced in every part of the country by washing the sand of the rivers, and is one of the sources of revenue: 12,000, some say, 20,000 people, are employed in that work, each of whom has from the Rajah a certain wages. Its gum lac is excellent, and it is very productive of silk.

'Among the fruits which this country produces are mangoes, plantains, jacks, oranges, citrons, limes, pine apples, and puniala, a species of tamarind, which has such an excellent flavor, that every person who tastes it prefers it to the plumb. There are also

coco-

coco-nut trees, pepper vines, and the areca trees. The sugar cane excels in softness and sweetness, and is of three colours, red, black, and white. There is ginger free from fibres, and betel vines. The strength of vegetation and fertility of the soil are such, that whatever seed is sown or slips planted they always thrive. The environs of Ghirgong furnish small apricots, yams, and pomgranates; but as these articles are wild, and not assisted by cultivation and engraftment, they are very indifferent. The principal crop in this country consists in rice and lentiles. Wheat and barley are never sown; lignum aloes is also a production of this country. The silks are excellent, and resemble those of China, but they manufacture very few more than are required for use. They are successful in embroidering with flowers, and in weaving velvet.—One of their great forests is inhabited by abundance of elephants: 6 or 700 may be taken in a year, but they are neglected by the natives, who have neither horses, camels, nor asses, such as are brought from other countries.

'The people of Asam are a base unprincipled nation, and have no fixed religion. They follow no rule but that of their own inclination, and make their own vicious minds the test of the propriety of their actions. They do not adopt any mode of worship practised either by heathens or Mahommedans, nor do they concur with any of the known sects which prevail among mankind; unlike the pagans of Hindustan, they do not reject victuals which have been dressed by Moslems, and they abstain from no flesh except human. They even eat animals that have died a natural death.'

In justice to the people of Asam, we must remark that the above account, extracted from the memoirs of Mir Jumla's expedition into that country, was composed by a rigid Mahommedan, at the court of that fanatical tyrant Aurengzebe. The author and his master saw, in the Asamese, only idolaters; and, in idolaters, the meanest of mankind. Their diet, though less restricted than that of the Hindus of Bengal, is by no means promiscuous; and their religion does not in any way differ from that of Hindustan,—as might easily be proved by their coins, inscribed with the names of Hindu deities.

In the following passage, Mr. Pennant adverts to the surprising phænomenon of fish being found in places which were before dry. We apprehend that his solution will not prove satisfactory. It is no uncommon thing for frogs and toads to be found alive on the flat tops of the highest houses, the day after a violent fall of rain, in tropical climates. These, it must be admitted, can only be conveyed by the rain to such situations, in whatever state of their existence it may be effected.

'The phænomenon of small fish appearing in the rainy season, in places before dry, is as true as it is surprising. The natives begin to fish for them the tenth day after the first rains, and they make a common dish at the tables. Many are the modes of accounting for this annual appearance. It has been suggested that the spawn may have

have been brought by the water fowl, or may have been caught up by the typhons, which rage at the commencement of the wet season, and be conveyed in the torrents of rain. I can only give an explanation much less violent; that these fishes never had been any where but near the places where they are found. That they have had a pre-existent state, and began life in the form of frogs: that it had been the Rana paradoxa of Gm. Lin III. p. 10. 55. Their trransformation is certainly wonderful.'

The following desultory observations are submitted for consideration, in case of a second edition of this work, which will probably become a popular one. 'The empire of Candahar was founded by Ahmed Abdalli, an Afgan prince, compelled by Culi Khan to join his army in 1739.' This mistake is copied from Major Rennell. Ahmed Shah was certainly of the tribe of Abdalli, but so obscure was his origin, that Mr. Forster could procure no account of it, even on the spot. All his Persian biographers speak of him as rising progressively in the service of Nadir Shah. The bill negotiated by Mr. Forster at Cabul was drawn at Casmir, not at Calicut.—'Not far from Nagarcut is Jelamuki, a temple built over the subterraneous fire. Possibly the country may be inhabited by the Ghebres, or worshippers of fire, or Persis, descendants of those who had escaped the horrid massacre of Timur Beg.' Did Mr. Pennant forget that this element is considered as the purest symbol of the Divinity by the Hindus; who undertake pilgrimages as far as Bacu, on the western coasts of the Caspian, to perform their mystic rites to what they term the uncreated fire? The Nubian Geographer mentions that the mountains about Cabul abounded with Neregil, which our author conjectures to be the Nellila Phylanthusemblica. The tree here meant, however, is the coco-nut tree; and even these have disappeared.—'Bokhara (says Mr. P.) seems to have been of more modern date: it is not mentioned, as far as I recollect, before the days of the Nubian Geographer, who wrote some time prior to the year 1151, but it appears to have been in the next century a most flourishing place.' Bokhara is much more antient than Samarcand; Khondemir says that it was the capital of Oguz Khan, whom the Mahommedan Tartars make the eighth in descent from Japhet:—but, let this be as it may, it was the capital of the Samanian empire founded in 909, on the ruins of which rose that of Gizna.—'The Ghiznian empire continued 207 years, Mahmûd began his reign in 977, and it became extinct in 1184.' Sultan Mahmûd ascended the throne in 997; and the dynasty, according to Khondemir, reigned only 155 years.

Of the magnificent temple demolished by Mahmûd, we find the following account: 'The famous pagoda Jumnat stood close

close to Puttan, on the western side of Guzerat. It was destroyed in 1022 by the bigotted Mahmûd. The Hindus believed that the souls of the departed went to this place, to be transferred into other bodies, human or animal, according to their deserts. The riches in gems, gold, &c. would be incredible, did we not know the power of superstition in those remote and unenlightened times.' We know not whence Mr. P. derived the above account, but the temple of which he speaks was dedicated to the moon, Somanat, and is so called by all the writers whom we have consulted. The legend is that Crisna, (the shepherd God,) sporting with the Gopia on a clear summer evening, amid the beautiful woods bordering the river, was so struck with the romantic scenery, and the serene skies enlightened by the moon, that he consecrated a temple to the Deus Lunus in the enchanting region in which he seemed to preside. It has nothing to do with Yama, the Hindu Minos; who is never called Yamanat.—Another mistake relative to Sultan Mahmûd occurs in the author's account of Bengal: 'About 25 miles below Rajmal, stood a city of great antiquity, the Gangia Regia of Ptolemy. Ferishta gives it a very high origin indeed; telling us that it was rebuilt and beautified 732 years before Christ, by Shincul. The name was then Gaur and Lucnauti. It was taken in 1009 by Mahmûd I., and the king made prisoner. Like Hannibal, he kept poison concealed in his ring, which he took, and put an end to his life. His country was annexed to the dominion of Gazna.' Here Mr. Pennant has mistaken the kingdom of Ghaur in Afganistan, for Gaur the capital of Bengal. Mahommed ben Suri was king of the former, and ended his days as above related in 1009. Mahmûd never approached nearer to Bengal, than Canoja. "Bengal (says Ferishta) was added to the empire by Humaiun, in 1538; he took its antient capital Gaur, and changed its name to Gennetabad, or the heavenly city." 'Ferishta should have said that it was first conquered by the Emperor Altumsh, who began his reign in 1210, but it appears to have recovered its independency.' This is a mistake into which our author has been led by Col. Dow. Ferishta, in his history of the kings of Bengal, (a work not yet translated,) says that it was first conquered by Bukhtyar Khelji, in the reign of Cuttubeddin Ibec: which is confirmed by Abulfazil; who adds that Nuddea was the antient capital, and that the seat of government was removed to Gaur by Bukhtyar.—'The Delta of the Indus (says Mr. Pennant) is called by the Indians, Pattala, which signifies the same thing.' Dr. Vincent * justly remarks that this word signifies hell, and

* In his Voyage of Nearchus. See Rev. xxvi. N. S. p. 254.

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is not unsuitably applied to an arid tract, where the heats are insupportable. Laribunder is not placed on the banks of the Richel by Major Rennell.—'Carpasus (says Mr. Pennant) is a word I cannot translate, but it appears to have been some vegetable that was used in making the Indian webs.' Carpasus was that species of the cotton plant which was named in India, Capas.

'Nardos Gapanica, or Nardus, from a certain part of India called Gapana, is another article of commerce. The Nardus was in high repute in former times, but now is out of fashion. It was much used in form of a pomatum, with which the Romans perfumed their hair. Old Gerard speaks of its medical virtues in his days. I cannot ascertain the plant.' Sir Wm. Jones has ascertained it to our entire conviction, and describes it in the Linnean style, *Valeriana Jatamansi floribus triandris foliis cordatis quaternis, radicalibus petiolatis.*—Mr. P. mistakes when he says that the Areca, or Beetle-nut tree, is not found in Bengal; they are very numerous in all parts of it.—'The inhabitants of Ceylon are the Cingalese; these are aboriginal, and differ totally in language from the people of Malabar, or any other neighbouring nations. Their religion is derived from Budda, a proselyte of the great Indian Foe: his doctrine spread over Jahan and Siam as well as that of Foe.' It is not easy to involve so many misapprehensions in so few words, as Dr. Thunberg has in the foregoing passage. Was he acquainted with the language of Malabar, and other neighbouring nations? It is necessary only to examine a map of Ceylon, in order to perceive that the cities obtained their names from a people speaking a dialect of the Sanscrit. The great Indian Foe is a personage of whom India never heard: but his supposed proselyte has made some noise. Sir Wm. Jones justly observes that the Budda of the Hindus is unquestionably the Foe of China.

Our limits will not admit of our pursuing the subject farther, but we have probably said sufficient to evince the necessity of careful revision:—the typography is likewise very incorrect. We must also state our concern at having discovered sentiments which we cannot pass without reprehension, in a work possessing so many popular attractions. 'Every good man (says Mr. P.) naturally wishes to hear that the end of a villain is suitable to his deeds. How are we disappointed when Mr. Scott tells us that he (Somroo) was not impaled!' Every good man naturally wishes that the end of a villain may be repentance, and amendment of life. Did our author forget that example, not revenge, is the object of legal punishment? But what shall we say to the following passage? 'Omichund played the part

of a double traitor; neither side would have censured his fate, and the secret might have remained for ever secure. He died eventually of a broken heart; had his death been anticipated a few days by any other means, where would have been the crime? We were not always so delicate! Political necessity has made many an honest man a knave!'—In treating of the insects of Bengal, (a curious place for such observations!) we find this mysterious paragraph; 'Our Cootes, our Lawrences, our Fordes, fought our detailed battles, and at length cleared the plains of Hindustan from a brave and able foe. The genius of the French sunk under the superior guardian of the British. Clive, by various great actions, decided the fate; some struggles between Nabob and Nabob kept for a while the flame of war alive. A short anarchy succeeded, and brought a temporary shame on the British name; inquiry! fictitious? was instituted:

"A gude *Scot* once grumbled
Brutum fulmen, meant only to scare when it *rumbold*."

Of such insinuations, we cannot approve.——The condition of the peasantry of Bengal is described as in the highest degree wretched, and exposed to the oppression of tyrannical landholders; yet the character of Mr. Hastings receives the highest encomiums. We are at a loss to reconcile the consistency of these representations, or to discover for what end government was instituted, unless to protect each class of the community from the the injustice of the others. This reasoning applies solely to Mr. Pennant's statement; for we have the satisfaction of knowing that the peasantry of Bengal enjoy a greater share of comparative happiness, than usually falls to the lot of that most valuable, most numerous, and most neglected description of people. The worst evil of which they have to complain arises from the high price of salt; a growing calamity, which eminently deserves the interposition of the legislature. Of what importance is it to limit the revenue derived from land, while the necessaries of life may be raised to an indefinite amount, by an established monopoly?

*** Since the foregoing article was written, the Newspapers have informed us of the death of Mr. Pennant; by which event, the literary public have sustained a very considerable loss.—As a well-informed and entertaining writer, he has scarcely left his equal.—He once told us himself that he was dead*, and we found ourselves justified in disbelieving him: we are now told by others that he is deceased, and we fear that we have no right to question the information: but, as he himself then said "RESURGAM," so may others now say, "HE SHALL RISE AGAIN."

* See the account of his own life, Rev. vol. xiii. N. S. p. 56.

ART.

ART. II. Captain Vancouver's *Voyage of Discovery round the World, Vol. III.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 160.]

ABOUT a week after the arrival of our voyagers at Owhyhee, a meeting of Chiefs, summoned from the different districts, (by Captain V. called the grand council of the island,) took place, to deliberate on 'its cession to the crown of Great Britain, which was unanimously desired.' This is the first mention of the subject that we find; and nothing farther relative to it occurs, till above a month afterward, when it is thus resumed:

'The domestic affairs of Tamaahmaah being settled, his mind was more at liberty for political considerations; and the cession of Owhyhee to his Britannic Majesty became now an object of his serious concern. On my former visit it had been frequently mentioned, but was at that time disapproved of by some of the leading chiefs; who contended, that they ought not voluntarily to surrender themselves, or acknowledge their subjection, to the government of a superior foreign power, without being completely convinced that such power would protect them against the ambitious view of remote or neighbouring enemies. During our absence this subject had been most seriously discussed by the chiefs in the island, and the result of their deliberations was, an unanimous opinion, that, in order to obtain the protection required, it was important that Tamaahmaah should make the surrender in question, formally to me, on the part of his Majesty; that he should acknowledge himself and people as subjects of the British crown; and that they should supplicate that power to guard them against any future molestation.'—

'Under a conviction of the importance of these islands to Great Britain, in the event of an extension of her commerce over the pacific ocean, and in return for the essential services we had derived from the excellent productions of the country, and the ready assistance of its inhabitants, I lost no opportunity for encouraging their friendly dispositions towards us, notwithstanding the disappointments they had met from the traders, for whose conduct I could invent no apology; endeavouring to impress them with the idea, that, on submitting to the authority and protection of a superior power, they might reasonably expect they would in future be less liable to such abuses.'—

'These people had already become acquainted with four commercial nations of the civilized world; and had been given to understand, that several others similar in knowledge and in power existed in those distant regions from whence these had come. This information, as may reasonably be expected, suggested the apprehension, that the period was not very remote when they might be compelled to submit to the authority of some one of these superior powers; and under that impression, they did not hesitate to prefer the English, who had been their first and constant visitors.'

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'On a due consideration of all the circumstances,' says Captain Vancouver, 'I felt it to be an incumbent duty to accept, for the crown of Great Britain, the proffered cession; and I had therefore stipulated that it should be made in the most unequivocal and public manner.' For this purpose, on the 25th of February, *Tamaahmaah*, with the Chiefs of many of the districts of the island, assembled on board the Discovery; all the officers of the two ships being present:

'*Tamaahmaah* opened the business in a speech, which he delivered with great moderation and equal firmness. He explained the reasons (already stated) that had induced him to offer the island to the protection of Great Britain; and recounted the numerous advantages that himself, the Chiefs, and the people, were likely to derive by the surrender they were about to make. He enumerated the several nations that since Captain Cook's discovery of these islands had occasionally resorted hither, each of which was too powerful for them to resist; and as these visitors had come more frequently to their shores, and their numbers seemed to increase, he considered that the inhabitants would be liable to more ill treatment, and still greater impositions than they had yet endured, unless they could be protected against such wrongs by some one of the civilized powers with whose people they had become acquainted; that at present they were completely independent, under no sort of engagement whatever, and were to make choice of that state which in their opinion was most likely by its attention to their security and interests, to answer the purpose for which the proposed surrender was intended. For his own part he did not hesitate to declare the preference he entertained for the king of Great Britain, to whom he was ready to acknowledge his submission; and demanded to know who had any objection to follow his example.'

Several other Chiefs likewise spoke. In all their speeches,

'Their religion, government, and domestic economy were noticed, and it was clearly understood that no interference was to take place in any of these respects. That the Chiefs and priests were to officiate with the same authority as before, and that no alteration in these particulars was in any degree thought of or intended.'—'These preliminaries being fully discussed, the king repeated his former proposition, which was now unanimously approved, and the whole party declared their assent by saying that they were no longer *Tanato no Owhyhee*, but *Tanato no Brittannee*. (That they were no longer men of Owhyhee, but men of Britain.) This being made known to the people in the surrounding canoes, the same expressions were repeated by them.'

Some officers were then sent on shore, who 'displayed the British colours, and took possession of the island in the name of his Majesty.' The ships now fired a salute, and the following inscription on copper was deposited at the royal residence:

"On the 25th of February, 1794, *Tamaahmaah*, king of Owhyhee, in council with the principal Chiefs of the island assembled on board his

his Britannic Majesty's sloop Discovery in Karakakooa bay, and in the presence of George Vancouver, commander of the said sloop; Lieutenant Peter Puget commander of his said Majesty's armed tender the Chatham; and the other officers of the Discovery; after due consideration, unanimously ceded the said island of Owhyhee to his Britannic Majesty, and acknowledged themselves to be subjects of Great Britain."

How far Captain Vancouver was authorised or empowered, by circumstances, to receive these islanders into the protection of the British empire, or what obligations his having so done has imposed on this country, does not appear to us. We have related the business at some length, and shall leave the reader to make his own comment. There are some circumstances in the narrative which ought to have been omitted, and which for that reason we forbear to mention.

Some Englishmen in the service of *Tamaahmaah* had undertaken to build a schooner for him, and had made some progress in their work, when Captain Vancouver arrived; with whose assistance the vessel was nearly completed before he left the island. Young and Davis, whom we formerly mentioned, continued high in the king's favour; and, which is yet more to their credit, they continued to merit it.

On the 14th of March, the ships left the Sandwich Islands, and stood to the northward towards the American coast, for the third season. Early in April they entered Cook's Inlet; and by the middle of May their examination of it was finished. No branch, nor river, communicating with this inlet, which in appearance promised so fair, was found to penetrate more than a very few miles beyond what, on the first entrance, had been discovered by Captain Cook. Several Russian settlements were seen, and some of them were visited. In a conversation with the Russians, Captain Vancouver observes, 'they seemed to use every endeavour to impress us with an idea, that the American continent, and adjacent islands, as far to the eastward as the meridian of Kaye's island, belonged exclusively to the Russian empire.'—As the ships quitted the inlet, they met a party of Indians in 200 canoes, each canoe carrying two persons, 'almost all men grown;' so that this must have been one of the most considerable tribes of Americans that they had seen. The natives in the neighbourhood of the Russian settlements were remarkably civil; and the behaviour of the Russians to the natives is represented as mild and friendly.

From Cook's Inlet they continued their survey, examining Prince William's Sound; the different branches of which were all found to terminate at no great distance from the Sound.

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At Port Etches, near the eastern point of the entrance into Prince William's Sound, was a settlement, consisting of 100 Russians. This was said to be their easternmost establishment, 'but their boats make excursions along the exterior coast as far as Cape Suckling, and their galliots much farther.' A party of ten Russians, with not fewer than 900 of the natives from Cook's Inlet and its neighbourhood, were met by the ships at Port Mulgrave, a distance of more than 100 leagues. Their object was to collect skins. They had very few articles of trade except beads; and it is not very probable that so large a party should confine themselves to such means only as traffic afforded, for which they were so indifferently provided, in order to procure what they wanted. The Russians, it appears, had, a short time before, been involved in a serious dispute with the Eastern natives: but with the circumstances our people did not become acquainted. When the ships arrived near Cross Sound, the natives who visited them were very differently disposed towards strangers, from those who had been seen in Cook's Inlet, and Prince William's Sound. From a canoe which came off, no one would venture into the ships without a hostage being first sent into the canoe.

In the survey of the coast between Cape Fairweather, in latitude 58° 51′ North, and Cape Spencer in lat. 58° 13′ North, we do not find the *Port des Français* of M. de la Pérouse, which is by him placed in 58° 37′ N. latitude. The entrance into Port des Français is less than half a league in width: but the track of Captain Vancouver along this part of the coast is drawn at not more than two leagues distance from the land. An opening is mentioned in the narrative. 'The favorable breeze continuing with delightfully pleasant weather, and having the advantage of day-light, nearly the whole of the twenty four hours, we were enabled to keep within five miles of the coast, which was now again well wooded, and from cape Fairweather took a direction S. 43 E.; it is steep and intire, with the exception of one small opening, that had the appearance of being likely to afford shelter for shipping; but it is completely bounded at a little distance by steep compact mountains, which are a continuation of the same undivided range stretching to the eastward.'

In the chart, likewise, an unexamined opening is placed in 58° 43′ N. latitude. We cannot be certain that this opening seen by Captain Vancouver was not Port des Français: but there can be no doubt entertained of the correctness of M. de la Pérouse's latitude, as he was a considerable time in that port, and had set up an observatory on shore.

On the examination of an arm of the sea within Cross sound, Captain Vancouver has made the following remark:

'The upper part of this arm, which after the place of my nativity, the town of Lynn in Norfolk, obtained the name of LYNN CANAL, approaches nearer to those interior waters of the continent, which are said to be known to the traders and travellers from the opposite side of America, than we had found the waters of the north Pacific penetrate in any former instance. This approximation is towards the south-west side of the Arathapescow lake, as laid down in Captain Cook's chart, from which its distance is about three hundred and twenty geographical miles; but from the close connection and continuation of the lofty snowy barrier, so frequently before adverted to, trending south-eastward, and nearly parallel to the direction of the continental shore, little probability can remain of there being any navigable communication, even for canoes between such waters and the north Pacific ocean, without the interruption of falls, cataracts, and various other impediments.'

The navigable extent of this canal is described to terminate in 59° 12′ N. latitude, and in 224° 33′ E. longitude, where a shoal extended across; the arm being there about a mile in breadth:

'The water was found to be perfectly fresh. Along the edge of this shoal the boats passed from side to side in six feet water, and beyond it, the head of the arm extended about half a league, where a small opening in the land was seen, about the fourth of a mile wide, leading to the north-westward, from whence a rapid stream of fresh water rushed over the shoal; but this, to all appearance, was bounded at no great distance by a continuation of the same lofty ridge of snowy mountains so repeatedly mentioned, as stretching eastwardly from mount Fairweather, and which, in every point of view they had hitherto been seen, appeared to be a firm and close-connected range of stupendous mountains, for ever doomed to support a burthen of undissolving ice and snow.'

This branch of the canal is left in the chart (as it is described in the narrative) unterminated beyond the shoal, and probably is navigable for boats or small craft at a considerable distance inland, beyond what was seen. The boat-excursions on this part of the coast were attended with much risk from the natives, who were numerous, well armed, and not well disposed. The surveying parties, more than once, were extricated from very dangerous situations by the prompt exertions of the officers to whom the performance of those services was intrusted. On one of these occasions, an awning being spred appears to have been of great use; the Indians being prevented by it, in an attempt which they made to board the boat. The Chief of a large party of Indians, who were met in Lynn Canal, makes a very different appearance from any other that we find mentioned in the course of the voyage.

'This Chief Mr. Whidbey represented as a tall thin elderly man. He was dressed in a much more superb style than any chief we had hitherto

hitherto seen on this coast, and he supported a degree of state consequence, and personal dignity, unusual to be found amongst the chiefs of North-West America. His external robe was a very fine large garment, that reached from his neck down to his heels, made of wool from the mountain sheep, neatly variegated with several colours, and edged, and otherwise decorated with little tufts, or frogs of woollen yarn, dyed of various colours. His head-dress was made of wood, much resembling in its shape, a crown, adorned with bright copper and brass plates, from whence hung a number of tails or streamers, composed of wool and fur wrought together, dyed of various colours, and each terminating by a whole ermine skin. The whole exhibited a magnificent appearance, and indicated a taste for dress and ornament, that we had not supposed the natives of these regions to possess.'

On the 19th of August, the voyagers had completed their survey from Cook's Inlet, to the part of the coast at which they broke off in the preceding year. To the harbour in which the ships lay at this time, was given the name of Port Conclusion. It is observable of this season, that the survey was commenced more early, and that a greater range of coast was examined, than in either of the former years.

'I have considered it essential (says Captain Vancouver) to the illustration of our survey, to state very exactly not only the track of the vessels when navigating these regions, but likewise those of the boats when so employed, as well when I was present myself, as when they were conducted by Mr. Whidbey or Mr. Johnstone, on whom the execution of that laborious and dangerous service principally fell, and to whom I feel myself indebted for the zeal with which they engaged in it on all occasions. The perusal of these parts of our voyage to persons not particularly interested, I am conscious, will afford but little entertainment; yet I have been induced to give a detailed account, instead of an abstract, of our proceedings, for the purpose of illustrating the charts accompanying this journal; of shewing the manner in which our time day by day had been employed; and, for the additional purpose, of making the history of our transactions on the north-west coast of America, *as conclusive as possible*, against all speculative opinions respecting the existence of a *hyperborean or mediterranean ocean* within the limits of our survey.'

For the present, we shall defer our opinion on this subject, that we may not interrupt the narrative.

The ships now steered for Nootka Sound, where they found a new governor, Sen. Alava; who informed them "that his appointment to this government had taken place, for the particular purpose of finishing the pending negociation, respecting the cession of these territories." The present governor, however, was still unprovided with the necessary credentials: but on his departure from St. Blas, in June, these documents were hourly expected, and a vessel was kept waiting there in

readiness to be dispatched, provided they arrived in time for her reaching Nootka before the 19th of October.' No credentials appeared during Captain Vancouver's stay at Nootka: but, while the ships were at Monterrey, to which place they went from Nootka, dispatches arrived from the Viceroy of Mexico. As no part of what was communicated to Captain Vancouver required his presence at Nootka, he determined on making the best of his way towards England.

In proceeding to the southward from Monterrey, they kept near enough to the continent to determine the latitudes and longitudes of some of the principal capes: but no part of the American coast, seen to the southward of 30° N. latitude, appears in any of the charts accompanying the account of the voyage. At the islands called Maria's Islands, between Cape St. Lucas and Cape Corientes, their boats landed. These islands produce great quantities of the *Lignum vitæ*: 'some, which was cut close to the beach and brought on board, worked up full eight inches in diameter at the heart. This wood was very ponderous, of a close black grain, and extremely hard.' At the island of Cocos, the ships procured wood and water. The geographical descriptions of former navigators differ so widely in the accounts both of the situation and extent of this island, that Captain Vancouver thinks it probable that there exists another island not far from this, to which some of the descriptions belong. A formidable account is given of the voracity of the sharks at this island; large shoals of them constantly followed the boats, and darted at the oars; and when any one was fishing, 'they would take the fish from the hooks before they could be got clear of the water: and what was still more singular, when one of their own species was taken, and they perceived he could no longer defend himself, he was instantly attacked, torn to pieces, and devoured by his companions.—

'These sharks appeared to be of three distinct sorts; the most numerous were of the tyger kind, these were beautifully streaked down their sides; the other sorts were the brown and the blue sharks; and it was singularly remarkable, that although they all voraciously devoured the two former, yet when one of the latter was caught, it remained unmolested by the rest, and even when killed, and cut up, its flesh was not eaten by its companions.'

It is erroneous, Captain Vancouver observes, 'to suppose that the shark is under the necessity of turning on his back for the purpose of taking his prey; as these sharks most commonly attained their object without turning themselves.'

After having left Cocos island, the Discovery sprang her mainmast; in consequence of which it was determined to steer for

for Valparaiso, on the coast of Chili. About the same time, Captain Vancouver discovered, to his utter astonishment and surprise, that the scurvy began to make its appearance among some of the crew: which is attributed to the cook's having, contrary to orders, given the skimmings of the boiled salted meat to the ship's company, to mix with their pease. The first skimming of any meat generally contains a considerable mixture of filth, and it is probable that the cook was not very nice in keeping the fat clear of the dirt: but it is not to be concluded, that the fat of meat, which has been long salted, has a greater tendency to produce scurvy than the lean, the juices of which commonly decay the soonest. They had at this time been four years from England, and four months from Monterrey, the last place at which they had obtained fresh provisions; and notwithstanding this appearance of the scurvy, they arrived in port without its occasioning any serious mischief, and they did not lose a single man by that disease during the whole voyage.

On the 25th of March (1795) the ships anchored in Valparaiso bay. The governor, on being made acquainted with the occasion of their arrival, so far from expressing any jealousy or uneasiness, received them in a friendly manner, and gave directions for their being accommodated with every assistance that the place would afford. Don Amb. Higgins de Vallener, the president and captain-general of the province of Chili, likewise honoured the commanders with an invitation to St. Jago de Chili, the capital. This gentleman is the same who was mentioned with so much respect by M. de la Pérouse, on his calling at Conception. His Excellency's invitation was accepted by our voyagers, and a party was formed of the two captains, and four other officers of the ships. They slept two nights on the road. The country through which they travelled appeared very thinly inhabited, till within fifteen miles of St. Jago; after which, plantations with good houses were seen on each side of the road, for the remainder of the way. When they had approached within a mile of the city, they were met by fresh horses, which were highly bred, and richly caparisoned, with saddle cloths, whips, and spurs, sent for them by his Excellency the President. Horsemanship had not been their study, and the finery of the horses not suiting well with the state of their clothes after so long a voyage, this mark of attention incommoded the whole party. The use of the spurs was declined by all; though the Spanish officer, who had charge of the escort, thought it a matter of the first importance, and expended much eloquence, and even expostulation, in hopes of overcoming their objections. Their reception by his Excellency (who was by birth an Irishman) was cordial and

polite without formality; and while they remained at St. Jago, they were welcomed by the principal families with unreserved hospitality.

Captain Vancouver has given particular descriptions of many of the buildings in this city. The money-house, or mint, is the most remarkable: it cost 700,000 dollars; and it is stated that 'about a million of specie is coined at St. Jago every year.' The coinage at Mexico, (according to the account obtained by Captain V.) between the 1st of January and the 31st of December 1793, was 'in gold pesos or hard dollars 884,262: in silver pesos 23,428,680. Total 24,312,942. This, however, was the greatest quantity of specie ever known, in one year, to have been coined in the money-house at Mexico.'

The city of St. Jago was said to contain 30,500 inhabitants, at which number Captain V. did not think they were overrated. An account is given of the instructions from the Spanish court, under the authority of which the government of the province is administered. The preservation of good order, and the promotion of industry, are the principal objects of attention: but the instructions are very general; and those to whom they are addressed having much discretionary power in the execution, they must be very liable to abuse.

Not being able to obtain a new mainmast at Valparaiso, the voyagers repaired the sprung mast as well as circumstances would admit. The main yard was likewise discovered to be sprung. On account of these defects, and of the southern winter season being far advanced, Captain V. did not think it prudent to navigate near the coast towards Cape Horn. The survey of this part was therefore not attempted.

The ships left Valparaiso on the 6th of May. After having sailed round Cape Horn, a search was made for Isle Grande, said to be in 45° 30′ S. latitude, but without success. July 3, they anchored at St. Helena. 'I had the inexpressible happiness (says Captain Vancouver) of seeing all my officers and men return to a British settlement, after an absence from England of more than four years and a quarter, perfectly well in health, and with constitutions apparently unimpaired by the extremely laborious service in which they had been so long employed, and to which without a murmur they had, at all times, and in all weather, uniformly submitted with great zeal and alacrity.' The Chatham being much smaller than the Discovery, and not so well able to encounter the roughness of a winter's passage round Cape Horn, her crew had not fared so well: but she did not, in the course of the whole voyage, lose a single man, 'either in consequence of ill health, or from any accident whatever.'

A scar-

A scarcity of rain, for three successive years, had caused great mischief and want at St. Helena. Several of the bread-fruit plants, which had been left by Captain Bligh on his return from the South Seas, had fallen to decay.—While the ships remained here, a Dutch East Indiaman, not knowing that we had commenced hostilities against them, stood into the bay, and Captain Vancouver sent his boats and took possession of her as a prize.

The remaining part of the voyage contains little that is peculiar, or worthy of remark.

In October (1795) both the vessels arrived safely in the Thames, after an absence of four years and a half.

The labours of this voyage have much lessened the grounds of reasonable hope that any navigable water-communication exists, between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, through the continent of America:—but that they are '*as conclusive as possible*,' will not by many be readily admitted. Whatever contempt may be shewn for *closet discoveries*, they have certainly some support, while there remain openings without any ascertained termination, for the indulgence of *speculative fancies* concerning a N. W. passage. It may likewise be argued that, as the river Columbia, and Port des Français, were passed by Captain Vancouver, if not without being noticed, without being thought worthy of examination, so might other openings equally have escaped observation; and this may seem the more probable, as the entrances both into Columbia river and Port des Français are so narrow, that, at a very moderate distance from the land, their appearance would be too inconsiderable to attract notice. The river Columbia was found navigable, and appeared to continue so, at the most advanced station to which it was explored; and several navigable branches, or rivers which fell into it, were seen, for the examination of which there was no opportunity. That this river may have communication with some of the lakes already known, is not very improbable. The natives reported that it extended to a great distance inland. There is, however, very little prospect, even if a depth of water sufficient should be found to continue, that it would be practicable for ships to navigate upwards, against so strong and constant a current.

The arm of the sea within Cross Sound, named Lynn Canal, though not navigable for large ships, had the appearance of continuing much farther navigable for small vessels; which, with the circumstance of its situation, ('approaching nearer,' Captain Vancouver observes, 'to those interior waters of the continent which are said to be known to the traders and travellers

vellers from the opposite side of America, than we had found the waters of the North Pacific penetrate in any former instance,') makes it an object of consideration. In the mention of unexamined openings, Port St. Francisco must not be omitted; and this, if we may judge from the account given in the narrative, is not among the least promising.

The strongest circumstance against the probability of a communication by water through North America is the following, noticed in the concluding paragraph of Captain Vancouver's account:

'In all the parts of the continent on which we landed, we nowhere found any roads or paths through the woods, indicating the Indians on the coast having any intercourse with the natives of the interior part of the country, nor were there any articles of the Canadian or Hudson's bay traders found amongst the people with whom we met, on any part of the continent or external sea shores of this extensive country.'

On the whole, we must be allowed to repeat that the prospect is considerably lessened, but that it is by no means yet proved that a N. W. passage does not exist.

With respect to the discoveries attributed to more early times, whatever may be alleged against the authenticity of them, there appears such a concurrence of facts, so much similitude between those descriptions and the most material particulars that have been ascertained by modern discovery, that it must not be allowed that the former accounts originated in unfounded tradition. Notwithstanding that the entrance of the channel which Captain V. calls the *supposed* Straits of De Fuca, instead of being found between the 47th and 48th degree of North latitude, is situated almost half a degree to the northward of the 48th degree, yet, it having been found that a strait, with a considerable extent of inland sea, does really exist; and that to the north of the strait there are many islands, or archipelagos of islands; it is a much more reasonable belief that some error crept into the old accounts, or that the situations may have originally been erroneously described, than that an assertion of the existence of a strait and of an archipelago of islands should have been made from mere random conjecture.

The endeavour to discover a passage from the more distant and unknown coasts of North America, to the Atlantic Ocean, has of late years been preferred to the more plain and natural mode of endeavouring to penetrate into this side of America. The ill success of former attempts, in Hudson's and in Baffin's bay, ought not to be esteemed as arguments in favour of giving a preference to the later mode. Most of these attempts were made at a time when navigators were not so well provided with

accommodations of every kind, as at present. Perhaps the best argument, in favour of commencing on the western side of the continent, is the different temperature of the climate. In high latitudes, the most prevailing winds are westerly; and those winds being from the land, on the eastern coast of the continent, occasion the severity of the winter season to be greater than where the most prevailing winds come immediately from the ocean. We find that, in 1794, Captain Vancouver recommenced his survey of the American coast near to Cook's Inlet, early in April; that on the 15th of that month, he was to the northward of 60° N. latitude; and that he found no impediment from ice, nor from the weather:—but the difference of temperature can scarcely be so great, as to be an equivalent for the advantages of beginning so near to our own settlements; whence, it might be presumed, a few favourable seasons of examination would either discover a passage, (if one exists,) or find a termination to every opening, and ascertain an uninterrupted continuance of coast.

The importance to Europeans of the western parts of North America seems, atpresent, to be confined to the procuring furs. We have already remarked on the quantity of this article produced in the Spanish settlements, and in the parts of the coast which the Spaniards claim as their territory: but most of these furs are said to be of an inferior quality. This trade must be an object of greater importance to the Russians, and to the Spaniards, than to any other European nation. Captain Vancouver was of opinion that no Europeans are so well qualified to carry it on as the Russians; since their accustomed manner of living differs so little from that of the American natives, that they were enabled to associate, and many of them did associate with the natives. It was likewise understood 'that, in all their establishments, the children of the natives are taken at an early age, and educated in the Russian language; and, no doubt, instructed in such principles as are most likely hereafter to be advantageously directed to the interests of that nation.'

Beaver skins are also procured on this coast. In the course of the voyage, not many instances appear of sea otters being seen in considerable numbers: but the most remarkable was in an arm of the sea near the 54th degree of latitude, where 'the sea abounded with sea-otters. They in the most sportive manner played about the boats, rearing themselves half way out of the water, and holding up their young ones in their fore paws, as if to view the boats as they passed.'

Captain V. has given a list of 20 vessels of different nations (exclusively of Russians and Spaniards) which were employed on the west coast of North America, collecting furs, in the year

year 1792. He was informed that their adventures in general turned to good account. The articles for traffic most esteemed by the natives were fire-arms, blankets, blue great coats, tin kettles, tobacco, and snuff. Sugar would probably be a favourite commodity:—for it is related that, on some being given to a Chief, he was 'greatly astonished at the taste of it, and gave some to his attendants, who were equally surprised.'

The remarks which we have made in the progress of our account, as well as the immediately preceding observations, are proofs that we have regarded this performance as entitled to great attention. There is reason for believing that Captain Vancouver neglected no opportunity of obtaining information, and his narrative therefore contains much that is both curious and useful.

In the miscellaneous observations at the end of the third volume, is given an account of the capture of the Argonaut, by the Spaniards, on the west coast of North America. On this circumstance, we have no occasion here to remark, as Captain Colnett, who commanded the Argonaut, has lately published a narrative of that transaction; of which we shall very speedily take ample notice.

ART. III. *Juridical Arguments and Collections.* By Francis Hargrave, Esq. Barrister at Law. 4to. pp. 650. 1l. 7s. Boards, Robinsons.

WITH whatever success juridical arguments might have been attended in the particular causes in which they were employed, they are in no danger of being useless to, or neglected by, the public, when proceeding from the pen of so eminent a barrister as Mr. Hargrave. We have long admired his abilities, and have had many opportunities of deriving assistance from his professional labours. His legal precision, and the extent of his knowlege, we have rarely, if ever, seen equalled; and we should have imagined, from his various and valuable endowments, that he had been a prosperous advocate. The plaintive and melancholy manner, however, in which he frequently speaks of himself in the work before us, forbids us to continue to entertain so pleasing and so natural an expectation. He considers himself as immured in a bark almost shivered by adversities; as exposed to the danger of new tempests and new proscriptions; and he talks of the feeble efforts and flagging spirits of a proscribed and almost shipwrecked advocate. To what circumstances such failure is to be attributed, we know not; we can only regret its existence, and

wonder that, where there is so much evident merit, there should not be a proportionable degree of encouragement.

The present volume contains thirteen arguments; some of which discuss topics of a general, and some of a confined, nature; and one or two of them involve points which belong more properly to the knowlege of our constitution, than to the knowlege of our law. We shall lay before our readers an account of the subjects introduced; and, where we think that we can do it with advantage, we shall make some extracts.

'The *first* article is an opinion written in 1793, upon the commitment of two gentlemen by the house of lords in Ireland, in the way of punishment, for a *contempt* and *breach of privilege*. The offence charged was publishing a paper, which reflected upon the proceedings of a secret committee of the Irish lords appointed to inquire into the causes of risings in various counties in Ireland. In the paper, the publication of which caused this commitment, the imputations were that the committee had grossly exceeded and abused its power,—by administering oaths,—by enforcing witnesses to answer interrogatories criminating themselves,—and by examining witnesses, to support prosecutions depending, and at the same time unconnected with the cause of the tumults the committee was appointed to investigate. Exclusive also of these imputations, the paper contained some doctrines, denying the right to various powers exercised both by the whole house and its committees: for it denied,—the right of the whole house acting legislatively to administer an oath,—the right of the whole house acting judicially to delegate to a committee,—the right of a committee proceeding judicially to act in secresy,—and the right, either of the house at large, or of a committee, to exhibit interrogatories tending to criminate the party examined, except at his own desire and to purge him from contempt. For these imputations and doctrines, which were mixed with considerable asperity of language, the two gentlemen were ordered to attend the Irish house of lords; and upon confessing, that they had authorized the printing of the paper, they were adjudged by the house to be guilty of a contempt and breach of privilege, and were sentenced to imprisonment for six months and to pay a fine of 500l. a-piece, and not to be discharged till the fine should be paid. Such was the case, upon the result of which the opinion was taken. The chief questions proposed were, on the legality of the commitment, and on the relievableness against its effect by resorting to the writ of habeas corpus. But, in writing upon these points, the author was in some degree called upon, to consider the *antiquity and nature of the jurisdiction of both houses of parliament in England over contempts and breaches of privilege*, the extent of such jurisdiction, and the manner of exercising it; and in this latter respect, the power of our house of lords in contempts and privilege to *imprison beyond the session*, and the power in such cases *to impose* fines. He also found it expected from him, that he should explain himself, on the competency of the judges to examine into the legality of an imprisonment under an order from either of our houses of parliament; and that he should consider, not only the right

right of suing out the writ of *habeas corpus* for relief against any excess in such commitments, but how the exercise of that right was attainable independently of the provisions in our *habeas corpus* act of the thirty-first of Charles the Second. Accordingly the reader will find in the first article of the volume somewhat referable to all of these constitutional subjects. He will also see, that the author risked disclosing his impressions, with as much fullness and explicitness, as could well be expected in a professional opinion upon points of such delicacy.'

We have read the whole of this argument with much pleasure, as it conveys clear and distinct information on a variety of constitutional points; some of which we had proposed to have transcribed, but we find the whole so connected that it would be difficult to quote any part without injury to the remainder. The inclination of Mr. Hargrave's opinion (though not without considerable doubts) seems to be that the commitment was legal: but, even if that point were allowed to be questionable, he thought that no court of law would undertake to inquire into its legality.

The two following arguments, comprised in one article, were delivered before Lord Thurlow in the year 1787 in the case of *Scott and his wife* against *Vernon and others*, on the effect of a legacy with condition restraining marriage without consent of the legatee's natural mother. The case, in which these arguments were delivered, is reported in 2 Bro. Cha. Cas. 431.—The result of the cause was a decree supporting the marriage condition; and, from the printed Report of the judgment, it appears that the Chancellor did not sustain the condition merely as a *precedent* one, but proceeded on the foundation of supporting all conditions not imposing restraints repugnant to the policy of our law concerning marriage.

In the course of the first argument, Mr. Hargrave examines the foundations of the doctrine *in terrorem;* questions its propriety; and endeavours to circumscribe its limits. He then proceeds to shew that neither the Roman law nor our ecclesiastical jurisdiction is responsible for this doctrine; and he points out the inconsistency of our courts of equity in having received it, and at the same time in some measure having avoided it.—From this part of the discussion, we shall make a considerable extract; as we deem the subject curious, interesting, and treated with singular learning and ingenuity.

'With respect to the Roman law, it certainly was jealous of and unfavourable to conditions in restraint of marriage. Many constitutions are to be found in that law tending to promote matrimony and discourage celibacy. But the most famous provisions of this kind are those contained in a law of the time of the emperor Augustus. The law, I allude to, is often called the *Lex Julia;* but its proper denomination is *Lex Papia Poppæa;* the real *Lex Julia* appearing to be

be a much earlier law of the same reign; though Gravina and other learned civilians have heretofore mistaken these two laws for one law with two different appellations. It is understood, that it was a principal object both of the *Lex Julia* and the *Lex Papia Poppæa*, to restore the population of the country, to prevent all unreasonable impediments of marriage, and to check the pernicious fashion of celibacy with its concomitant irregularities; for so general was celibacy become, when the latter of these laws was passed, that scarce a citizen having children could be found who was worthy of being consul. *Causa*, says Heineccius in the Preface to his elaborate Comment upon the latter of these laws, *ferendæ legis honestissima, ut Romani, adulteriis et vagæ veneri adsueti, præmiis et pœnis, ad ducendas uxores et prole locupletandam rempublicam, adducerentur.* Amongst the provisions in the *Lex Papia Poppæa* for encouraging matrimony, there is one expressly aimed against legacies on condition of celibacy. It is the 29th chapter of the remnants of this law, as collected and arranged by Heineccius, and the 17th in Gothofred's edition. The words are, *si quis celibatûs aut viduitatis conditionem hæredi legatoriove injunxerit, hæres legatoriusve eâ conditione liberi sunto; neque eo minus delatam hereditatem legatumve ex hâc lege consequuntur.* In plain English, if a legacy was given on condition of celibacy or widowhood, the condition was to be null and void, and the legacy was to have effect as if no condition had been added. Such was the law itself; and in terms it only nullifies conditions forbidding marriage *wholly*, without touching upon such conditions as are merely calculated to restrain improper marriages. The words of this law therefore are not enough to shew, that all conditions in restraint of marriage were made invalid: for at least the letter of the law was confined to absolute prohibitions of marriage, which our own law equally reprobates, except where a wife is restrained from a second marriage. It seems however, that the frauds upon this famous Roman law provoked a free and large interpretation; in consequence of which it was made to reach conditions merely on account of *their tendency* to celibacy. Thus if a legacy was given on condition of marrying a particular person, who was of such inferior degree or other description as to render the marriage enjoined disgraceful or impracticable to the legatee, it was deemed equivalent to a condition of celibacy, and as such was brought within construction of the law. If also a legacy was given to any one, under a condition to marry *ex arbitrio alterius*, that is, as another person should appoint, the condition was null; a construction only to be accounted for, by supposing, that it had become a practice to evade the law by naming some person with a secret confidence not to consent to any marriage. But how is it possible to argue from all this, so as to make any just inference in respect to our own law? The comparison between the law of Rome and the law of England on this subject serves to shew, that in some points they agree, in some they differ. Both laws favour the liberty of marriage; and both reprobate celibacy; on which last account both refuse giving effect to conditions not to marry. But nearly at this point the resemblance ceases; for it is certain, that our law will endure conditions not to marry without consent, regarding neither limitation of

time,

time, nor the sort of person entrusted with the power, where no intention appears of imposing a restraint so as to make marriage impracticable: and it may be equally true, that, for the sake of guarding against frauds upon its policy in favour of marriage, the Roman law would not tolerate such conditions. It may be pleasing to make such comparisons. For some purposes, and on some occasions, it may be useful to undergo the labour of them. But in deciding what is the law of England on this subject, how can it apply in argument in this court, that the law of Rome differs from our law? Can it be reasonably or decently said, that this court, or even any of our ecclesiastical courts, ought to adopt the *Lex Julia* and the *Lex Papia Poppæa*, or the interpretations of those laws amongst the Roman jurisconsults, in a point about which our own law prescribes differently? Where the law of England has not given the rule upon a subject within ecclesiastical or admiralty jurisdiction, I clearly understand, that it may be open to such forums to consult and adopt the decisions of the Roman law. But I cannot reconcile myself to the strangeness of deciding even in the courts spiritual upon a principle of Roman jurisprudence, where the law of England distinctly furnishes a principle of another kind. Besides it is far from being clear to me, that the Roman lawyers did reject conditions in restraint of marriage in the extent supposed. In the case cited from the Roman law, the condition is not limited in point of time, but is so expressed as to continue during the legatee's whole life; and the power of consenting is seemingly lodged in a *stranger* to the legatee. But here the condition of marriage with consent is annexed to the legacy for a time only, that is, till the legatee's age of twenty-one; and the person entrusted with the power of consent is the legatee's own *parent*. In other words, the condition is to enforce attention to that consent to marriage, which the law itself requires. Yet the rule of this court, which is relied upon, has been ever stated with a generality sufficient to govern even such a case. But where is the authority to be found, by which it can be proved, that the Roman law would have rejected a condition not to marry under *full age* without consent of the *father*? I take it to be clear, that it was prohibited by the Roman law to marry without consent of parents, whatever doubts there may be as to the effect of such a marriage when actually celebrated. Is it probable then, that the same law would condemn a condition requiring such consent? In this last point of view, the reference to the Roman law leads rather to the approbation of such a condition of marriage as is imposed in the present case, than to furnish any authority against it.

"The assertion, that our ecclesiastical courts follow the Roman law in deciding upon legacies, and therefore nullify all conditions against marrying without consent, appears to me as still more open to a variety of remark. If I am right in my observations upon the Roman law, it is most probably a mistake to suppose, that the law against such conditions was interpreted in the extent, in which the court of chancery is understood to have received the doctrine about conditions of marriage *in terrorem*. The rule here is always stated so broadly, as to take in those cases in which the consent is required from the

parent,

parent, and limited to the *age of twenty-one*, equally with those in which the power of consent is given to a *stranger* and made *perpetual*. But as I have already endeavoured to shew, it remains to be proved, that the Roman law was interpreted in such latitude as to reach conditions of the former and limited kind. It may be asked also, what is the evidence, that the doctrine of marriage conditions *in terrorem*, as practised in our courts of equity, was previously a rule of the ecclesiastical courts. Naturally one would expect, that the evidence of this should come from *their* learned writers, or from the records and reports of *their* jurisdictions. But inquire at Doctor's Commons; and I have reason to suppose, that the learned gentlemen of the civil law, even the most profound of them, would be at a loss to furnish authorities from their treasures, and therefore would refer us back to our own repositories. Since the habit of resorting to courts of equity in cases of legacy, and experience of the convenience of the peculiar powers incidental to equitable jurisdictions, the ecclesiastical courts have had little and very unfrequent conusance of legacies; and as I am told, their jurisdiction over them has gradually fallen into so much disuse, as to be almost in a dormant state. When, however, the spiritual courts are called upon, it is understood, that instead of claiming to give the rule to chancery as the younger jurisdiction, they consult our equity reports for their guidance. The truth is, that Swinburne's book on Testaments and the Orphan's Legacy by Godolphin are almost the only books from our civilians, which contain any matter on the law of legacies. But Swinburne is wholly occupied with the Roman law upon the subject; and Godolphin, except where he borrows from the former, takes his materials from reports of decisions by the temporal courts. It is singular also, that the only reference by name to be met with, to a legacy case depending upon condition of marriage decided by the spiritual courts, is in Mr. Serjeant Moore's Reports 857, and there Judge Winch cites one Pigott's case, in which the legacy was held good notwithstanding breach of a condition, that the legatee should not marry without consent of her mother. Thus without so much as one decision immediately from the spiritual courts, and with only one single short decision of those courts furnished to us through the report of a common lawyer, the foundation of the complicated and diversified doctrine of equity in respect to marriage conditions *in terrorem* is affirmed to originate from their authority and example. But this, I must say, is a slight ground for resting the doctrine of *in terrorem* on the antient practice of the ecclesiastical courts as the main and primary foundation. From such anxiety also to make these courts responsible for the doctrine, it looks as if there was some distrust of its intrinsic merit.'

The whole learning on this important subject is brought forwards, and placed in a perspicuous point of view, in the course of these arguments; which we recommend with perfect confidence to the attention of our professional readers.

The third article is an argument at law for the title of James Brydges, third and last duke of Chandos, to the manor of Villiers,

liers, in Queen's County, Ireland. The fourth is an argument for the same nobleman in the equity suit against him, respecting the same manor of Villiers.

The fifth article of the volume consists of two arguments in the famous MYDDELTON cause determined by the present Lord Chancellor in July 1794. The cause was between Mr. Myddelton of Chirk Castle and his son, both of whom are since deceased; and it was instituted for the purpose of relieving the father from the pressure of a settlement which he had made, on the ground of there being fraud in the manner in which it was obtained from him. The case is reported in 2 Ves, Jun. 391. and the plaintiff's bill was dismissed with costs.

The Duke of Athol's claim, under a parliamentary entail of the Isle of Man, is the subject of the sixth article. Of the seventh, the Author thus speaks:

'The *seventh* article consists of collections concerning the *Appropriation of Parliamentary Supplies*; and is rather parliamentary and constitutional than strictly juridical. It was hastily framed soon after the sudden dissolution of parliament in the spring of 1784, before passing of the usual act for appropriating the supplies of the session: and this attention of the author to the subject was, in consequence of his understanding it to be the wish of the King's chief minister, under whose immediate department the author then held a kind of official situation, to have some statement to assist his enquiries.'

A collection relative to writs of error in criminal cases, with some deductions as to the state of authorities on the extent of the right of the subject to such writs, will be found in the eighth article.—After having enumerated the authorities on this nice and important subject, the author concludes his inquiries with the following opinion:

'From the preceding review of the cases and authorities on the question whether a writ of error in criminal cases is a writ *of right* or *of favour*, it appears,

'1. That long previously to the reign of Queen Ann there were opinions in favour of considering writs of error even in treason and felony as writs of right; particularly the opinion of Lord Chief Justice Wray in the King's Bench in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, an approbation of that opinion by Lord Coke, with a resolution of the House of Commons in 1689 declaratory of their sense of the law accordingly.

'2. That, consequently, the idea of its previously being a perfect novelty, to consider writs of error in any criminal case as writs of right, seems to be a mistake, founded on not having sufficiently attended to the history of the subject.

'3. That in the reign of Queen Ann there is a resolution of ten Judges out of twelve delivered in parliament, declaratory of the absolute right to a writ of error in all criminal cases except treason and felony.

'4. That

'4. That in the same reign there is a resolution of the lords after hearing the judges, declaring the absolute right of the subject to a writ of error in all criminal cases without so much as one exception.

'5. That, since the reign of Queen Ann, the right of the subject to a writ of error in criminal cases under treason and felony has been recognized in Westminster-hall by some judges without contradiction from the rest.

'6. That Lord Mansfield qualifies the right to a writ of error in misdemeanors, by explaining the writ to be not *absolutely of course*, but only claimable as a right on *probable* error shewn.

'7. That, whether Lord Mansfield's qualification of the right to a writ of error in misdemeanors is adopted by other judges, or is his lordship's particular opinion, is not discoverable at present.

'It may perhaps be expected, that after advancing thus far into the question of right concerning writs of error in criminal cases, I should add my own opinion, or at least something approaching to one. But I purposely avoid so doing. It is a subject, on which I have not thoroughly made up my mind in the full extent. Besides, on a point of such general importance, and one now depending before the first law-officer of the crown, I think it more becoming me not to offer my private sentiments. If the matter I have collected is of sufficient weight in favor of Mr. *****'s claim to a writ of error, the aid of my opinion will not be necessary to the support of his pretension. If the authorities I have stated shall not in themselves avail to prevent Mr. Attorney General from refusing his fiat to the claimed writ of error, it would be an inexcusable presumption in me to suppose, that any opinion from me would have influence enough to supply the deficiency of those authorities.

'Not having been consulted on the subject of these observations till yesterday, I probably have omitted some authorities, which with more time I might have collected. I particularly think it likely, that both Fitzherbert's *Natura Brevium* and the Year Books may furnish material information. But though I may have omitted many things of consequence, I may add, that I could not have collected nearly so much in so short a time, if heretofore I had not made some researches on the subject.'

We are next presented with an argument for the Earl of Inchiquin, on his appeal to the Irish House of Lords from a decree of the present Lord Chancellor of Ireland, made in Hilary term 1794, in a cause in which Mr. Burnell was plaintiff, and the Earl of Inchiquin, the Duke of Leinster, and the Earl of Shannon, were defendants. The great point of the cause was on the construction of a covenant of renewal, in a lease granted in 1668 by the Earl of Inchiquin, great great grandfather of the present Earl, of certain lands in Ireland, to Mr. Burnell's great grand-father, for sixty-one years, at 10l. per year; and on the terms of the lessees maintaining the buildings, and not parting with the premises without the lessor's consent

and giving the refusal to him. The cause was heard in the Court of Chancery in the year 1794; and the Chancellor was of opinion that, under the covenant of renewal, the original lease was to be construed as *renewable for ever*, and he decreed accordingly against Lord Inchiquin. When the hearing of the cause came before the House of Lords in Ireland, there was an order absolutely reversing the Chancellor's decree; founded, it is said, on the unanimous opinion of the Judges against the right of renewal.

The tenth article is an argument for Mr. Mackreth's petition of re-hearing, on a decree made at the Rolls, and affirmed by the Chancellor; and the thirteenth consists of proposed reasons for an appeal to the Lords from this decree.

Two arguments in the Exchequer, for the corporation of Liverpool against the corporation of London, will be found in the eleventh article. The object of this cause was to try, in a short way, the great question whether the privilege of London CITIZENS, to be exempt from antient tolls and duties throughout England, extends to NON-RESIDENT Freemen. For this purpose, there is a statement of some authorities against extending the London privilege to NON-RESIDENT FREEMEN, as a sort of supplement to the various authorities which the author had several years before brought forwards against such an extension, in the printed case for the Lynn Corporation, on the writ of error before the House of Lords in LONDON against LYNN.

The twelfth argument is on the admissibility of the votes of the Claimants of the Earldom of Caithness and Barony of Ochiltree, at the election of the sixteen Peers for Scotland in 1790.

In the *Appendix*, are contained papers connected with some articles in the body of the work, and introduced for the purpose of making them more intelligible.

Such are the various contents of this useful and learned publication; in which much will be found to amuse literary curiosity, and still more to assist the accurate investigators of legal topics.

ART. IV. *Observations on the Western Parts of England*, relative chiefly to Picturesque Beauty. To which are added, a few Remarks on the Picturesque Beauties of the Isle of Wight. By William Gilpin, M. A. Prebendary of Salisbury; and Vicar of Boldre, New Forest. 8vo. pp. 370, and 18 plates. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

WE rejoice that the venerable founder and master of the Picturesque School,—for so we may truly intitle the writer of these Observations,—has been pleased once more to

admit us of his party, and to point out to our attention the leading features of perhaps the most beautiful, if not the most romantic, part of our island. Upwards of thirty years have now passed, since, as a portrait-painter, (if we may be allowed the expression,) he first excited our applause by some sketches of Biography, which the critic should contemplate for their elegance, and the saint for their piety *. His talents for *landscape* were long, in a great measure, unknown; and they would probably have still continued so, if Mr. Mason had not introduced them to the notice of the public †. By a happy union of the pen and the pencil, Mr. Gilpin has since carried the powers of description to their fullest extent; and his masterly delineations have not only given a new interest to the most celebrated scenes, but have unfolded many sweet recesses which had hitherto escaped the eye of the traveller.

From the volume before us, which has a still higher claim to a favourable reception than any of the former, (the profits of it being destined to lay the foundation of a charitable fund,) we shall extract a few of the most striking passages as they occur; first presenting our readers with a view of the drawing-room of Norbury-house, near Guildford, the seat of Mr. Lock; which exhibits a very elegant style of decoration, and is justly considered by Mr. Gilpin as an object of great curiosity.

'The walls are covered with a hard and durable stucco, and are painted by Barret. The whole room represents a bower or arbour, admitting a *fictitious* sky through a large oval at the top, and covered at the angles with trellis-work, interwoven with honey-suckles, vines, clustering grapes, and flowering creepers of various kinds. The sides of the room are divided by slight painted pilasters, appearing to support the trellis roof; and open to four views. That towards the *south* is *real*, consisting of the vale inclosed by Box-hill, and the hills of Norbury, and Dorking, which hath been just described. The other three are *artificial*. Two of them, which are the two end-views, cover the whole sides of the room from the ceiling to the base.

'The scene presented on the *west* wall, is taken from the lakes of Cumberland. It is an exact portrait of none of them; but a landscape formed from a collection of some of the happiest circumstances which belong to all. No real view could present so beautiful and complete a picture.'—

'The near ground is composed of bold rocks, and other rough surfaces, with which the banks of lakes commonly abound. Among these a wild torrent, variously broken, pours its waters under the surbase of the room, which intercepts it.'—

* See the first volume of our General Index, p. 467. CLASS, *Biography*.

† See M. R. vols. xlvi. and lvii. Tables of CONTENTS.

'The other grand landscape occupies the *eastern* wall of the room. It is, I think, inferior to that on the *west*; yet it is a noble work. The scene is sylvan, and the objects of course less grand.'—

'The *north* side of the room, opposite to the windows, offers two more landscapes; divided by the breast of the chimney; which is adorned with a pier-glass, let into the wall, and covered thick with a frame-work of honey-suckles, vines, wild-roses, and various creepers in flower; all painted with great beauty. These two pictures on the *north* are a continuation of the scene exhibited on the western wall, which they unite with the landscape on the *east*. Clustering vines, and wild flowers, form a frame-work to all these beautiful pictures, both at the base and along the trellis-work of the sides; so as to give them the resemblance of being seen through the openings of the arbour.

'With this *unity in the subjects* of these landscapes, the *light* also, and other *particulars* coincide. The *season* represented, is autumn. Every where round the room the year is in its wane. Each tree, and bush, is touched with its autumnal hue. The *time of the day* is about an hour before the sun sets, which, after a rainy afternoon, is breaking out from the watery clouds that are scattered before a gentle breeze, in too high a region of the air to affect the surface of the lake. The rainy clouds, which are broken in the *west*, hang heavy in the north; and give a dark lurid tint to the lake below. In the *north-east angle*, a ray of sunshine, breaking through the gloom, gilds a castled cliff: but the clouds condensing again, fall in a heavy, though a partial shower on the landscape in the east.

'As the sun is represented setting on the *western* side of the room, it is *supposed* to illumine the several objects in *all* the pictures; and when the *natural hour* corresponds with the *hour represented*, there is a coincidence of *artificial* and *natural* light. All the landscape, both within and without the room, appears illumined by the same sun. The union too between the *natural* and *artificial* landscape, is still farther assisted by a few straggling trees, which are planted before the windows, with a view to connect the picture with the *country*.

'We dwell the longer on this curious and interesting room, as it is the only one of the kind perhaps in England. There is a room painted by the celebrated Gasper Poussin, at the villa of Monte Dragone, near Rome, on a plan something like this; but Gasper has paid no attention to the union of the several *lights*, nor to the *characteristic agreement* of the several views.'

Mr. Gilpin's remarks on the propriety of introducing monumental sculpture into our churches, whether the reader agrees with him or not, are well worthy of regard:

'Indeed I know not whether monuments at all in such churches as pride themselves on their architecture, can in any shape be considered as ornamental: the nave of Westminster-Abbey, for instance, is injured, *as a piece of architecture*, by the several monuments introduced into it, which, like spots of light in a picture, injure the *whole*; they break in upon its simplicity and grandeur.'—

'In all cathedrals there are cloisters and other recesses, which are the proper situations for monuments: and even here every thing should.

should not be admitted that comes under the name of a monument, and pays the fee. Plain tablets may be allowed; but when figures and ornaments are introduced, they should be such as neither disgrace the sculptor, nor the person whom he meant to honour. It would be of great advantage also to class monuments, as we hang pictures in a room, with some view to symmetry and order; and, if different professions were ranged by themselves, it would still make it more agreeable to examine them.'

Not less deserving of attention are his strictures on the ornamental furniture of a great house:

'The *apartments* of a noble house should not suffer their *ornaments* to obtrude *foremost* upon the eye. Each apartment should preserve its *own dignity*; to which the *ornamental* part should be *subordinate*. In every work of art, and indeed of nature also, it is a breach of the most express picturesque canon, if the *parts* engage the eye more than the *whole*. The hall, therefore, the staircase, the saloon, and other apartments, might be adorned with a few busts and statues; but to receive the whole collection, perhaps a long gallery should have been *professedly* built. In this they might have been arranged in *profusion*.'

The following ludicrous anecdote is related concerning our great English painter:

'The east window of St. Mary's chapel is adorned with a picture of the Resurrection, in painted glass. Sir Joshua Reynolds gave the design; in which, though he had represented our Saviour rising, he had left the tomb still closed and sealed. The Bishop remonstrated, that he had given the fact contrary to the truth of Scripture; where, it is said, the seal was broken, and the stone removed. Sir Joshua, however, still persisted; contending, that by not breaking the seal, he had made the miracle so much the greater; and it was not without some difficulty that the Bishop got him persuaded to correct his design. The truth, I suppose, was, Sir Joshua had not fully, at first, attended to the circumstances of the story; and did not care to be at the trouble of altering his picture.'

Mr. Gilpin has been accused of continually discovering a propensity

"To judge of Nature by an Artist's rules:"

but those who advance the charge should remember that this was the very object which he proposed to himself at the outset; and that the fault (if it be a fault) is imputable to the original scheme, and not to his manner of executing it. Nature, however, (to use the language of Shakspeare) is "still his goddess;" and then perhaps most the object of his admiration, when she disdains all rule, and baffles every effort of the pencil.

'As we approached Barnstaple, the view from some of the high grounds is very grand, composed on one side of Barnstaple-bay, and on the other of an extensive vale, the vale of Taunton carrying the

eye far and wide into its rich and ample bosom. It is one of those views which is too great a subject for painting. Art, confined by the rules of picturesque composition, must keep within the compass of inch, foot, and yard. But such slender confines cannot rouse the imagination like these extensive scenes of nature.'—

'The fact is, art is a mere trifler compared with Nature. The efforts of both, it is true, may be called the works of God: but the difference lies here. In the efforts of *art*, God works with those little instruments called *men*; he works in miniature. But when he works in the grand style of *nature*, the elements are his instruments.'

Mr. Gilpin did not advance far into Cornwall, though that country is so full of promise to the Antiquary and the Mineralogist.

'He could have wished also to have heard the winds howl among the bleak promontories of the Land's-end: to have seen, through a clear evening, the light fall indistinctly on the distant isles of Scilly; and to have viewed the waves beating round the rocks of that singular situation, Mount St. Michael.'

The loss of this last scene he regretted more than any thing else:—but to travel over deserts of dreariness in quest of two or three objects seemed to him to be buying them at too high a price.

From Bodmin he proceeded to Lescard, and visited Plymouth on his return. We regret that we cannot attend him thither; that we cannot convey our readers, in such company, to the sublime sea-views of Mount Edgecumb, the curious structure of the Edystone light-house, and the hanging woods and rocky scenery of the Tamer and the Dart:—but we have already exceeded our limits; and must content ourselves with the glimpse of an Abbey, which is probably unknown to the generality of readers:

'In a sequestered part of the country, where Devonshire and Dorsetshire unite, lies a circular valley, about a mile and half in diameter.

'Its sides slope gently into its area in various directions; but are no where steep. Woody skreens, circling its precincts, conceal its bounds; and in many parts connecting with the trees, which descend into the bosom of the valley, form themselves into various tufted groves. Through the middle of this sweet retreat winds a stream, not foaming among broken rocks, nor sounding down cataracts; but mild like the scene it accompanies, and in cadence not exceeding a gentle murmur. From this retreat all foreign scenery is excluded. It wants no adventitious ornaments; sufficiently blessed with its own sweet groves and solitude.

——"Such *landscape*
Needs not the foreign aid of ornament;
But is, when unadorned, adorned the most."

'This happy retirement was once sacred to religion. Verging towards one side of the valley stand the ruins of Ford-abbey. It has

has never been of large dimensions, but was a model of the most perfect Gothic, if we may credit its remains, particularly those of a cloister, which are equal to any thing we have in that style of architecture. This beautiful fragment consists of eight windows, with light buttresses between them, and joins a ruined chapel on one side, and on the other a hall or refectory, which still preserves its form sufficiently to give an idea of its just proportions. To this is connected by ruined walls a massy tower. What the ancient use of this fabric was, whether it belonged to the ecclesiastical or civil part of the monastery, is not now apparent; but at present it gives a picturesque form to the ruin, which appears to more advantage by the pre-eminence of some superior part.

'At right angles with the chapel runs another cloister, a longer building, but of coarser workmanship, and almost covered with ivy. The river, which enters the valley at the distance of about half a mile from the ruin, takes a sweep towards it, and passing under this cloister, opens into what was once the great court, and makes its exit through an arch in the wall on the opposite side.

"This venerable pile,
——clad in the mossy vest of fleeting time,"

and decorated all over with variety of lychens, streaming weather-stains, and twisting shrubs, is shaded by ancient oaks, which, hanging over it, adorn its broken walls without encumbering them. In short, the valley, the river, the path, and the ruins are all highly pleasing; the *parts* are beautiful, and the *whole* is harmonious.

'They who have lately seen Ford-abbey will stare at this description of it. And well may they stare; for this description antedates its present state by at least a century. If they had seen it in the year 1675, they might probably have seen it as it is here described. Now, alas! it wears another face. It has been in the hands of *improvement*. Its simplicity is gone; and miserable ravage has been made through every part. The ruin is patched up into an awkward dwelling; old parts and new are blended together, to the mutual disgrace of both. The elegant cloister is still left; but it is completely repaired, white-washed, and converted into a green-house. The hall too is modernized, and every other part. Sash-windows glare over pointed arches, and Gothic walls are adorned with Indian paper.

'The grounds have undergone the same reformation. The natural groves and lawns are destroyed; vistas and regular slopes supply their room. The winding path, which contemplation naturally marked out, is gone; succeeded by straight walks, and terraces adorned with urns and statues; while the river and its fringed banks have given way to canals and stew ponds. In a word, a scene abounding with so many natural beauties was never perhaps more wretchedly deformed.'

When we compare the descriptions given by Mr. Gilpin with those of his predecessor Mr. Gray*, we must confess that the last

* See his Journey through the North of England, in Mason's Memoirs, Sect. v. Let. iv.

are the most glowing and poetical: but the first appear to have the greatest precision, and to convey the clearest picture to the eye of the mind. Mr. Gray excites a thousand enchanting associations, and, by the talisman of his genius, throws a splendour *unborrowed of the sun* on every object which he notices; while Mr. Gilpin, though not so powerful a magician, is perhaps a better painter. His outline is more faithful and determined, and his colouring is less heightened beyond the truth. He indeed may be said to be the first who has examined the face of a country by the rules of picturesque beauty, opening the sources of those pleasures which are derived from the comparison; and from his criticisms on natural and artificial scenery have originated, in a great measure, a spirit of investigation and a system of improvement, which, we doubt not, will establish our superiority in an art which we may justly call our own.

ART. V. *Travels in the Two Sicilies, and some Parts of the Apennines*, translated from the Original Italian of the Abbe Lazzaro Spallanzani, Professor-Royal of Natural History in the University of Pavia, &c. &c. 8vo. 4 Vols. With Eleven Plates. 1l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

THE obligations of the literary world to the *Abbate Spallanzani* are already considerable, and his science has given celebrity to his age and country; the latter of which he has illuminated as a single star shines through the gloom of a dark night. Of the present work, it may be justly remarked that it presents a treasure of geology and chemical information; although it may be found, in certain positions and deductions, liable to be questioned, and in other particulars rather too much dilated. We cannot sufficiently admire the indefatigable perseverance of this philosopher, which supported him in so many hazardous investigations; nor the self-possession with which, under circumstances of imminent danger, he could exert all the powers of a mind replete with knowlege and a love of truth *.

Having observed thus summarily on the importance and merits of these volumes, we presume that a concise analysis, and some of the author's details in series, may be more acceptable to readers of general curiosity, than an attempt to controvert or to establish his axioms of mineralogical study.

The first visit was made by the Abbate in the summer of 1788 to Mount Vesuvius; where he found Wedgewood's

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* For the former works of this respectable naturalist, see the General Index to the Old Series of the M. R. from 1749 to 1789; both inclusive.

pyrometer

pyrometer the most efficacious instrument in ascertaining the nature of the Lava. On the 4th of November, he passed the night at the Hermitage *del Salvatore*, about two miles from the summit of the mountain.

'I rose,' says he, 'four hours before day, and continued my journey towards the burning crater, from which, as I have before said, flames arose at intervals, which on a nearer approach appeared larger and more vivid; and every ejection was followed by a detonation, more or less loud, according to the quantity of burning matter ejected: a circumstance I did not notice before, on account of the distance, but which became more perceptible to the ear in proportion as I approached the mouth of the volcano; and I observed, when I had arrived within half a mile of it, in a direct line, that the ejections preceded their accompanying explosions only by an instant, which is agreeable to the laws of the propagation of light and sound. At this distance not only flames were visible to the eye, but a shower of ignited stones, which, in the stronger ejections, were thrown to a prodigious height, and thence fell on the declivities of the mountain, emitting a great quantity of vivid sparks, and bounding and rolling till they came within a short distance of the place where I stood. These stones, when I afterwards examined them, I found to be only particles of the lava, which had become solid in the air, and taken a globose form. These showers of lava appeared an invincible obstacle to my nearer approach to the volcanic furnace. I did not, however, lose all hope, being encouraged by the following observation. The showers of heated stones, I remarked, did not fall vertically, but all inclined a little to the west. I therefore removed to the east side of Vesuvius, where I could approach nearer to the burning mouth: but a wind suddenly springing up from the west, compelled me to remove, with no little regret, to a greater distance, as the smoke from the mouth of the crater, which before rose in a perpendicular column, was now drifted by the wind to the side on which I stood; so that I soon found myself enveloped in a cloud of smoke abounding with sulphureous vapours, and was obliged hastily to retire down the side of the mountain. Yet though I was thus disappointed of the pleasure of approaching nearer to the edge of the crater, and observing the eruptions more nearly and accurately, many instructive objects were not wanting.'

Concerning that great natural phænomenon, the course of the lava, he observes:

'Pursuing my way to the south, along the declivity of the mountain, I arrived at the part where the lava ran above the ground. Where the stream was broadest, it was twenty-two feet in breadth, and eighteen where narrowest. The length of this torrent was two miles, or nearly so. This stream of lava, when compared with others which have flowed from Vesuvius, and extended to the distance of five or six miles, with a proportionate breadth, must certainly suffer in the comparison; but considered in itself, and especially by a person unaccustomed to such scenes, it cannot but astonish and most powerfully

fully affect the mind. When I travelled in Switzerland, the impression made upon me by the Glacieres was, I confess, great; to see, in the midst of summer, immense mountains of ice and snow, placed on enormous rocks, and to find myself shake with cold, wrapped up in my pelisse on their frozen cliffs, while in the plain below Nature appeared languid with the extreme heat. But much more forcibly was I affected at the sight of this torrent of lava, which resembled a river of fire. It issued from an aperture excavated in the congealed lava, and took its course towards the south. For thirty or forty paces from its source, it had a red colour, but less ardent than that of the lava which flowed within the cavern I have mentioned above. Through this whole space its surface was filled with tumours which momentarily arose and disappeared. I was able to approach it to within the distance of ten feet; but the heat I felt was extremely great, and almost insupportable, when the air, put in motion, crossed the lava, and blew upon me. When I threw into the torrent pieces of the hardened lava, they left a very slight hollow trace. The sound they produced was like that of one stone striking against another; and they swam, following the motion of the stream. The torrent at first descended down an inclined plane which made an angle of about 45 degrees with the horizon, flowing at the rate of eighteen feet in a minute; but at about the distance of thirty or forty paces from its source, its superficies, cleared from the tumours I have before mentioned, shewed only large flakes of the substance of the lava, of an extremely dull red, which, clashing together, produced a confused sound, and were borne along by the current under them.

'Observing these phenomena with attention, I perceived the cause of this diversity of appearance. The lava, when it issued from the subterranean caverns, began, from the impression of the cold air, to lose its fluidity, so that it yielded less to the stroke of solid bodies. The loss of this principle, however, was not such as to prevent the superficies from flowing. But at length it diminished by the increasing induration; and then, the superficial part of the lava, by the unequal adhesion of its parts, was separated into flakes, which would have remained motionless had they not been borne away by the subjacent matter, which still remained fluid, on account of its not being exposed to the immediate action of the air, in the same manner as water carries on its surface floating flakes of ice.

'Proceeding further, I perceived that the stream was covered, not only with these flakes, but with a great quantity of scoriæ; and the whole mass of these floating matters was carried away by the fluid lava, with unequal velocity, which was small where the declivity was slight, but considerable when it was great. In one place, for ten or twelve feet, the descent was so steep that it differed little from a perpendicular. The lava must therefore be expected there to form a cataract. This it, in fact, did, and no sight could be more curious. When it arrived at the brow of this descent, it fell headlong, forming a large liquid sheet of a pale red, which dashed with a loud noise on the ground below, where the torrent continued its course as before.

'It

'It appeared to me that it might be expected that, where the channel was narrow, the velocity of the torrent must be increased, and where it was capacious diminished; but I observed that, in proportion as it removed from its source, its progressive motion became slower: and the reason for this is extremely obvious; since the current of melted matter being continually exposed to the cold air, must continually lose some portion of its heat, and, consequently, of its fluidity.

'At length the lava, after having continued its course about two miles, along the declivity of the mountain, stopped, and formed a kind of small lake, but solid, at least on the superficies. Here the fiery redness disappeared; but about two hundred feet higher it was still visible, and more apparent still nearer to its source. From the whole of this lake, strong sulphureous fumes arose, which were likewise to be observed at the sides, where the lava had ceased to flow, but still retained a considerable degree of heat.

'After having written these observations on the lava ejected by Vesuvius, as it appeared from its source to its termination, which I made in company with Dr. Comi Abruzzese, a young student of great promise in medical and physical science, I had an opportunity to read the accounts of former eruptions, as they have been given by men of great abilities, who had observed them on the spot: I mean Dr. Serao, Father Della Torre, M. Deluc, and Sir William Hamilton. I perceive that, in the principal facts, the phenomena I have observed agree with their observations, and that the differences are but few. Thus the torrents of lava which they have described were accompanied with great fumes, and covered with pieces of lava and scoriæ. In like manner the liquid lava received but small impressions from the stroke of solid bodies, and sometimes none. Serao informs us, that the lava of 1737, when struck on the surface with long pointed staves, was found to be so hard that it resounded. According to the observation of Father Della Torre, the thick lava of the eruption of 1754, when raised with long poles, split into pieces. M. Deluc shewed me, some years since, in his private cabinet of Natural History, at Geneva, a piece of Vesuvian lava, of the eruption of 1758, marked with a slight impression, which he made on it, on the spot, while it retained its softness. If this naturalist should ever chance to come to Pavia, I could shew him, in return, in the public Imperial Museum, among the collection of volcanic productions which I have made, a cylinder of lava, 18 inches long, and 5¼ thick, which, in one part, has been bent to an angle, while it was half liquid, by the hands of the guide who accompanied me when I visited the eruption I have above described. In the eruption of 1766, likewise, though the lava flowed with surprising velocity, we are told, by Sir William Hamilton, that it received but a very slight impression from some large stones that he threw into it. Father Della Torre has also remarked another phenomenon which I observed, and have described, relative to the effervescence and tumours of the fluid lava.

'But my meeting with the subterranean cavity in which the lava flowed, was a fortunate and singular circumstance, which is not, that I know

I know of, mentioned by any one else, because probably it was not seen; since all the descriptions of eruptions which we have, relate solely to currents of lava running over the surface of the ground, exposed to the free action of the air; from the effect of which the lava must soon cool and harden; as appears from the very slight impression made by stones thrown into it, according to all the accounts I have cited, and my own observations. But the narrowness of this cavern, and in some measure its depth, prevented this action of the air; whence I was enabled to observe the lava in a state in which it cannot be seen above the ground, still retaining a great part of its fluidity, as appeared from its from time to time spouting into the air, and from the impressions made on it by the pieces of lava thrown into it. It cannot, therefore, be doubted but it had a much greater degree of fluidity when it boiled up in the Vesuvian furnace; as it must then have been penetrated with a greater quantity of absolute heat, by the action of which its parts must have been more disjoined and separated, and therefore have possessed a greater degree of fluidity and mobility. But I shall adduce still stronger reasons to prove the great fluidity of the lava, when it foams and boils up in its craters, when I come to speak of the volcano of Stromboli. I dwell the longer on this subject, because I know some have denied that the lava is ever fluid, asserting, that it has only the consistence of paste moistened with a good deal of water, and descends down any declivity in consequence of its gravity.

'To complete the observations I have made on this eruption, nothing appears to remain but to speak of the quality of the ejected lava. On this I made different experiments, all of which, some extrinsic or accidental circumstances excepted, furnished the same results. The base of the lava is of horn-stone rock, of a dark-grey colour, of moderate hardness, dry to the touch, where it has been fresh broken somewhat earthy, and gives some sparks with the steel. This lava put the magnetic needle in motion at the distance of three lines and a half, or somewhat more than a quarter of an inch.

'It is well known to volcanic naturalists, that many of the lavas of Vesuvius contain colourless garnets. In that of which I treat, they were found very numerous, though very small. When broken, they appeared glassy; and sometimes a kind of side or face was visible, though without its being possible to determine the quality of the crystallization, not so much from their smallness as from their being too intimately incorporated with their tenacious matrix. With the garnets were united a number of shoerls, of the colour and lustre of asphaltum, vitreous, crystallized in faces, the largest of which was nearly five lines. Those which were found in the running lava had received no injury from the fire; but those in the globes ejected from the crater in that eruption, were in a state of beginning fusion.

'The fire of the furnace changed this lava into a kind of enamel, full of bubbles, of the colour of pitch, shining, which gave sparks with steel, and adhered strongly to the sides of the crucible. The shoerls melted, but the garnets did not; they only became whitish, but without entirely losing their vitreous appearance.'—

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'The greater part of this lava lies in a valley under Massa, and on one side of Salvatore. Before it arrived there, it must have fallen from a high rock, and consequently formed a cataract, which, when seen by night, I was told, exhibited a most wonderful spectacle to the eyes of beholders. But though its fall through the air must have been very considerable, and it must in consequence have lost much of its heat, when it reached the ground it continued still to flow for a considerable space. On the side of Massa, I observed that it had approached within ten or twelve feet of some oaks which grew on the side of a precipice. Some of them appeared entirely withered; others preserved their verdure only on that side of the trunk and branches which was opposite to that next the lava. In its passage it did such damage to a small church called *Madonna della Vetrana*, that it has ever since remained deserted. The fiery torrent took it in front, and broke down the wall, which indeed required no great force, as it was built with soft stones of tufa brought from the neighbouring mountains of Massa, and much like that of Naples. Thence it penetrated into the church, and having destroyed the door on the opposite side, and beat down a part of the wall, continued its course through the church, within which it was observed to flow with greater velocity than the rest of the surrounding lava, from being confined by the walls on the sides. With this lava the floor of the edifice still continues covered, and the contiguous sacristy partly filled; while large pieces of the broken wall, which the torrent had carried away, lie at more than eighty feet distance from the church, in the middle of the hardened lava.—Some linden trees are likewise to be seen surrounded by the same, the trunks of which are blackened and burnt. The lava, as I was assured, continued to flow fifteen months; and when I visited the place, which was ten months after it had ceased to flow, it was still warm, and emitted thin fumes.'

After having examined the Grotto of Posilipo, the Solfaterra, Ischia, and the Phlegrean fields, the author pursued his journey to Sicily and Mount Ætna. We subjoin the interesting comparison which he draws between that stupendous volcano and Mount Vesuvius:

'Though Vesuvius, considered in itself, may be justly called a grand volcano, and though, from the destruction and calamities it has at various times occasioned, it has continually been an object of consternation and terror to the inhabitants of the neighbouring country; yet when it is compared with Etna it must lose much of its celebrity, and appear so diminished, that, if the expression may be allowed, it may be called a volcano for a cabinet. Vesuvius does not, perhaps, rise higher than a mile above the level of the sea; and the whole circuit of its base, including Ottajano and Somma, is not more than thirty miles; while Mount Etna covers a space of one hundred and eighty, and in its height above the sea considerably exceeds two miles. From the sides of Etna other lesser mountains rise, which are as it were its offspring, and more than one of which equals Vesuvius in size. The most extensive lavas of the latter mountain do not exceed seven miles

miles in length; while those of Etna are fifteen or twenty, and some even thirty miles in extent. The borders of the crater of Mount Etna are never less than a mile in circuit, and, according to the changes to which they are subject, sometimes two or three miles; it is even reported, that in the dreadful eruption of 1669 they were enlarged to six. But the circumference of the Vesuvian crater is never more than half a mile, even when widest distended, in its most destructive conflagrations *. Lastly, the earthquakes occasioned by the two volcanos, their eruptions, showers of ignited stones, and the destruction and desolation they occasion, are all likewise proportionate to their respective dimensions. We cannot therefore wonder that visits to Vesuvius should be considered as undertakings of little consequence, and never be made public, except lavas should have been flowing at the time; while a journey to Etna is considered as no trivial enterprise, both from the difficulty of the way, and the distance; as from Catania, whence it is usual to set out, it is thirty miles to the summit of Etna. On such a journey, likewise, we have to pass through three different climates; whereas to go from Naples to Vesuvius should be rather called an excursion than a journey. We find also little difference between the temperature of the air at the bottom of this latter mountain, and that of its summit. Notwithstanding these difficulties, however, the gigantic majesty of the Sicilian volcano, its sublime elevation, and the extensive, varied, and grand prospects its summit presents, have induced the curious, in every age, to ascend and examine it; and not a few have transmitted to posterity the observations they have made during their arduous journey.'

The Abbate condemns Mr. Brydone's narrative, as inaccurate in many particulars, and void of science. Of his own unwearied spirit of investigation, we select the following very surprising instance:

'I was not more than a hundred and fifty paces distant from the vertex of the cone, and already beheld close to me, in all their majesty, the two columns of smoke. Anxious to reach the borders of the stupendous gulf, I summoned the little strength I had remaining, to make a last effort, when an unforeseen obstacle, for a moment, cruelly retarded the completion of my ardent wishes. The volcanic craters, which are still burning more or less, are usually surrounded with hot sulphureous acid steams, which issue from their sides, and rise in the air. From these the summit of Etna is not exempt; but the largest of them rose to the west, and I was on the south-east side. Here likewise, four or five streams of smoke arose, from a part somewhat lower; and through these it was necessary to pass; since on one side was a dreadful precipice, and on the other so steep

* I know not how M. Sage was led into so strange an error as to assert that *the crater of Vesuvius is more than three miles in diameter.* (Elem. de Min. tom. 1.) Were this true, the circumference of the Vesuvian crater must be nearly ten miles, an extent which perhaps the crater of no volcano in the world ever had.'

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a declivity that I and my companion, from weakness and fatigue, were unable to ascend it; and it was with the utmost difficulty that our two guides made their way up it, notwithstanding they were so much accustomed to such laborious expeditions. We continued our journey, therefore, through the midst of the vapours; but though we ran as fast as the ground and our strength would permit, the sulphureous steams with which they were loaded were extremely offensive, and prejudicial to respiration; and affected me, in particular, so much, that for some moments I was deprived of sense; and found, by experience, how dangerous an undertaking it is to visit volcanic regions infested by such vapours.

'Having passed this place, and recovered by degrees my former presence of mind; in less than an hour I arrived at the utmost summit of Etna, and began to discover the edges of the crater; when our guides, who had preceded me at some distance, turned back, and, hastening towards me, exclaimed in a kind of transport, that I never could have arrived at a more proper time to discover and observe the internal part of this stupendous volcano. The reader will easily conceive, without my attempting to describe it, how great a pleasure I felt at finding my labours and fatigue at length crowned with such complete success. This pleasure was exalted to a kind of rapture, when I had completely reached the spot, and perceived that I might, without danger, contemplate this amazing spectacle. I sat down near the edge of the crater, and remained there two hours, to recover my strength after the fatigues I had undergone in my journey. I viewed with astonishment the configuration of the borders, the internal sides, the form of the immense cavern, its bottom, an aperture which appeared in it, the melted matter which boiled within, and the smoke which ascended from it. The whole of this stupendous scene was distinctly displayed before me; and I shall now proceed to give some description of it, though it will only be possible to present the reader with a very feeble image, as the sight alone can enable him to form ideas at all adequate to objects so grand and astonishing.'

In the city of Catania, the Chevalier Gioeni has formed a museum, in which are some extremely minute shells, in size not exceeding a grain of sand, methodically distributed and placed at the bottom of small tubes; at the other end of which is a lens, by which the peculiarity of the involutions and the variety of colours become perceptible.

The *Second Volume* includes an equally satisfactory account of the Lipari or Æolic Isles, the volcano of Stromboli, &c. abounding in matter alike curious, but in general too diffusely arranged, for such transcription as our limits allow us to make. Lipari is founded on a rock of lava and glass. The Abbate enters into an examination of the different kinds of pumice stone, and an ingenious conjecture is offered respecting its origin from the Asbestus and Amaranthus. An inquiry is likewise made into the nature of Basaltes, in the *Third Volume*; in which the most novel

novel and interesting disquisition is that which examines, by experiments, the nature of the gases of volcanos, and the true causes of their eruptions.

The *Fourth Volume* contains a recapitulation of arguments for the establishment of various hypotheses. Arriving afterward at Messina, the author describes with great interest the calamitous accidents which have befallen that ill-fated city, especially at the earthquake in 1783.

'When I travelled in those parts, the dreadful effects of the earthquake of 1783 were the common subject of discourse. On my entering, in the felucca, the Strait of Messina, some of the people who were with me pointed out to me the shore of Scilla where a great number of people were drowned at that calamitous time. A dreadful shock of an earthquake took place, about noon, on the 15th of February of the above year, which terrifying the people of Scilla, they fled in crowds to the shore, when, about eight o'clock the following night, according to the Italian reckoning *, another violent shock succeeded, in which the waves rose so high that they covered the whole shore, and out of more than a thousand persons who were there collected, among whom was the Prince of Scilla himself, not one escaped to relate and mourn the fate of the rest. The furious waves, rushing into the strait, penetrated to the harbour of Messina, and nearly sunk the vessels there at anchor.

'When I arrived opposite to the city, I began to see the fatal and ruinous effects of this dreadful earthquake. The curvature of the harbour was formerly embellished, for the extent of more than a mile, with a continued range of superb palaces, three stories in height, usually called the *Palazzata*, inhabited by merchants and other persons of opulence, which formed a kind of superb amphitheatre. The upper story, and a part of the second, of these buildings, were entirely thrown down, the lower greatly torn and damaged, and the whole of this extensive pile deserted by its inhabitants.

'When I entered the city, every object which met my view tended to awaken melancholy sentiments and commiseration. Excepting some of the wider and more frequented streets, the rest were all heaps of ruins, either piled up on each side, or scattered in the middle, and rendering it impossible to pass them. Many of the houses were still in the same ruinous state in which they had been left by the earthquake; some entirely destroyed and levelled with the ground, others half thrown down, and others still standing, or rather hanging in the air, merely from the support afforded by the ruins around them. Those which had escaped this destruction appeared as if preserved by a miracle, torn and rent as they were. The cathedral was among the number of these fortunate edifices. This is a spacious building, of gothic architecture. Its interior has suffered little or no damage. It is embellished with a number of columns of granite brought from an ancient Grecian temple, which once stood on the Faro (or Strait of Messina), and with elegant Mosaic work wrought with the most beautiful jaspers of Sicily.

'* About one in the morning.'

'The

'The destruction of so great a number of houses as were thrown down by this dreadful earthquake obliged the people of Messina to take refuge in wooden sheds built for the occasion, many of which were still standing when I was there. They had begun, however, to rebuild the houses, but on a different plan from the old ones. They had observed that the highest had suffered most, and that, in the violent shocks of the earthquake, the beams, by continually and forcibly beating against the walls, had completed the ruin of the edifice. They therefore resolved to build them lower, and to construct the wood-work in such a manner, that, in case of a similar visitation, the shock should be sustained by the whole of the building, and not by a part only. This precaution, it is evident, must be of the greatest utility, should the city again suffer a calamity of this nature.

'Though it was now nearly the sixth year since that dreadful disaster, considerable remains of the dread, consternation, and, I may say, stupefaction, which usually accompany great terrors, were still manifest in the minds of the people of Messina. They had still present in their memory all the circumstances of that dreadful time; nor could I listen to the narrative they gave of them without shuddering.'

Of Scylla and Charybdis, we are gratified by a scientific account; as also by a very ingenious piece of natural history respecting the *phosphorescent medusæ* observed in the Straits of Messina. The Coral fishery, and that of the sword-fish and sea-dog, (a species of shark,) are the concluding particulars of these very valuable volumes.

From this praise of the original work, we must subtract something when speaking of its English appearance. Though the translation is faithful, it is seldom elegant; and though the plates are copied with exactness from those in the original publication, still they afford a very imperfect elucidation.

ART. VI. *On the Syntax of the Latin Verb:* designed for the Use of Students. By Samuel Seyer, M. A. of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 339. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

FROM the author's advertisement, we learn that this volume is only a small part of what was intended to be *an entire* Grammar of the Latin Language: which, if the present work should meet with public approbation, he still designs to accomplish.—We have no doubt that this specimen will be well received by the public; and that a prosecution of the plan will be attended with much advantage to the student who wishes to acquire a correct Latin style, or even to enter into the just meaning of Latin authors.

The work is divided into 27 chapters. The first contains only a definition of the Indicative Mood; which 'signifies that

something is affirmed or denied: as, *Nos patriam fugimus.—Nunquam omnes hodie moriemur inulti.* It is also used in interrogative sentences; sometimes with, and sometimes without, certain interrogative words, as *an, num,*' &c.

Chap. II. treats on the Present Tense of the Indicative Mood; which, according to Mr. S. signifies, 1. The action now going on, but not yet finished: as *Teipsum quæro.* 2. The custom of doing any thing, if the custom be still in being: as, *Scribimus indocti, doctique.* 3. It is frequently used as a more animated way of expressing past time; as *Vulnus alit venis,* &c. *Dum hæc geruntur.* 4. There are instances in which a future signification may be expressed by the Present Tense: *Quæ prima pericula vito.* All these are amply exemplified by the author, both from prose and poetry.

Chap. III. The Preterimperfect speaks, 1. of an action as passing, but not finished, at some time past; as, *Ibam fortè viâ sacrâ.*—2. The custom of doing any thing in time past, as, *In hora sæpe ducentos, ut magnum, versus dictabat.*—3. In some cases it is equivalent to our English Preterite (*he wrote*), and in such cases the Latin Preterperfect would be equally admissible.—4. It is frequently found instead of the Preterimperfect Subjunctive; as, *anceps certamen equestre erat, ni equites supervenissent.*—5. The word *erat*, with a Noun, seems sometimes to be used instead of *est. Sed nunc non erat his locus* *.

Chap. IV. Of the Preterperfect Tense; which is, 1. The proper indefinite Aorist (*I wrote*); as, *Orationem hujusmodi habuit;—Conticuere omnes.*—2. It is used in that sense which in Greek would be expressed by the Παρακείμενος; as, *Si tales animos in prælio habebitis, quales hic ostenditis, vicimus.*—3. It is sometimes used in a sense peculiarly indefinite; to signify an action of universal time, past, present, and to come; as, *Pax aluit vites et succos condidit uvæ.* 4. It is poetically used in a conditional sense, instead of the Preterimperfect or Preterpluperfect Subjunctive; as, *Nec veni, nisi fata locum sedemque dedissent.—Primam merui qui laude coronam; ni me quæ Salium, fortuna inimica tulisset.*—5. *Odi, memini, novi*, and sometimes *cœpi*, have the signification of the Present Tense; and, consequently, the Preterpluperfect *noveram*, &c. have the sense of the Preterperfect, and the Future Perfect *novero*, &c. the sense of the simple Future.

6. 'In writing letters, it is usual to use † those verbs in the Preterperfect Tense, which express the present writing.'—*Hæc*

* We think that *erat* in this example is not put instead of *est*: but that *nunc* is here equivalent to *tunc*. The other examples, particularly *Nunc est bibendum*, &c. are more to the purpose.

† *It is usual to use* appears to us an *unusual* phrase.

festinans

festinans scripsi in itinere atque agmine.—If the time is to be represented as passing, the Preterimperfect is used. *Cum hæc scribebam, censorem jam te esse sperabam.*—If a former Letter be mentioned, the Preterpluperfect is used. *Dederam triduo antè literas ad te, eò nunc ero brevior.*—These rules are not always observed. 7. In verbs in *or*, this tense is double; *amatus sum* or *fui*: where *amatus sum* is a real past Tense, notwithstanding the appearance of *sum* in the Present.

So far we have given the author's rules and exceptions chiefly in his own words:—but we shall now content ourselves with giving a very brief notice of the contents of each chapter.—Three useful lists next occur,—1st, Of examples in which *amatus sum* is used to signify the Past aorist.—2dly, Examples in which *amatus sum* is used to signify the παρακείμενος of the Greeks.—3dly, Sentences in which *fuit* is joined to a Participle Perfect.

Chap. v. lays down rules for the use of the Preterpluperfect Tense Indicative, illustrated by proper examples.

Chap. vi. treats on the Future Tense Indicative.

Chap. vii. Of the Future Perfect Tense Indicative: which signifies not merely that an action is future, but that at some future time it will be past. *Ero securior, dum legam; statimque timebo, cum legero.*—It is often best translated into English by the simple Future.

Chap. viii. The author here takes notice of a *particular* use of the Present and Preterimperfect Tenses. When any action is mentioned as having continued for some time and still continuing, the verb must be in the Present Tense, when in English we use the Preterperfect; and in the Preterimperfect Tense, when in English we use the Preterpluperfect. *Plus jam sum libera quinquennium:* which in English would be expressed; *I have now been free more than five years* *.

In Chap. ix. Mr. S. treats on the Tenses of the English Verb, in order to shew 'how defective the Latin language is in its Tenses.' Here we do not altogether agree with him.

In Chap. x. he returns to the Imperative Mood and its Tenses.

From Chap. xi. to Chap. xviii. inclusively, he treats copiously on the different Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood; and in Chap. xix. which is a long and important one, he gives an accurate list of the various particles which require the Subjunctive Mood after them; with the exceptions to which many of

* We are not sure that we might not use the Latin mode of phrasing with great propriety. The French say, *Je suis libre il y a plus de cinq ans.*

them are liable. Every composer in Latin ought to read this chapter with attention.

Chap. xx. treats on the signification of the Infinitive Mood; and

Chap. xxi. Of its peculiar Syntax.

Chap. xxii. contains a list of Verbs which admit, after them, *ut*, *ne*, *quo*, *quin*, *quod*; in an alphabetical order: with a shorter list of verbs, after which *ut* may be omitted.

Chap. xxiii. and xxiv. treat of Gerunds and Supines.

Chap. xxv. Of Participles.

Chap. xxvi. Of Verbs impersonal.

Chap. xxvii. and last, Of the various kinds of Verbs.

The volume concludes with four useful Tables; 1. A list of Verbs which are used both as *active* and *neuter*. 2. A list of Deponent Verbs; which use the voice in *o*, in the same sense. 3. A list of Verbs *passive*, used as *deponents*. 4. A list of Verbs in *or*, which are used both as *active* and *passive*.

We strongly recommend this publication to every Latin student, and hope that the ingenious author will be encouraged to give his entire work.

Art. VII. *The Nurse*, a Poem. Translated from the Italian of Luigi Tansillo. By William Roscoe. 4to. pp. 94. 6s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

Having received so much pleasure from Mr. Roscoe's translations in his celebrated *Life of Lorenzo de' Medici* *, we rejoiced to find that he had employed his leisure hours in furnishing the females of our country with the version of a work, which, though little known in England, even by those who are best acquainted with Italian literature, is written on a subject of the utmost importance to humanity.

Tansillo, the author of the original Poem, was a native of Nola in the kingdom of Naples. Born about 1510, and dying in 1569, he may be truly said to have flourished during the most illustrious period of Italian poetry and the Italian language: but his profession being that of arms, under the banners of Spain, (which was then in possession of the kingdom of Naples,) he may be regarded as a *Dilettante* in literature and in the service of the Muses, rather than as an author by trade.

We shall present our readers with the translator's account of the poem, previously to the consideration of the work itself:

* With respect to the poem, of which an English translation is now attempted, it may certainly be considered (says Mr. R.) as a

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* See M. Rev. vol. xx. and xxi. N. S.

singular

singular and interesting production. As the work of one of the brightest wits in that constellation of Genius which appeared in Italy in the sixteenth century, and which yet diffuses a permanent light over the horizon of literature, it is worth notice and consideration. Contemporary with Ariosto, with Bembo, with Casa, and with the two Tassos, Tansillo was not perhaps inferior to any writer of his time in the simplicity of his diction, the elegance of his taste, or a strict adherence to nature and to truth. But independent of the merit which the poem may be presumed to possess from the acknowledged character of the author, it will be found on examination to contain within itself sufficient claims to the approbation of the admirers of Italian poetry. The subject is in a high degree interesting, and is treated in a manner peculiarly pointed and direct, yet without violating that decorum which is due to the public at large, and in particular to the sex to whom it is addressed. To those who feel the laudable curiosity, and acknowledge the utility of comparing the manners of different ages, it will afford many striking indications of the state of society at the period in which it was written, and will tend to shew, that the ideas and feelings of mankind on all subjects of general concern, are much less liable to variation from the diversity of time and place, than is frequently supposed. Such is the coincidence between the state of manners in Italy in the sixteenth century, and in England in the eighteenth, that the translator, though intending to accommodate the poem to modern times, has seldom found it expedient to vary from the original in the slightest degree; and if he has not wholly failed in his purpose, he thinks it will appear that it would be difficult even in the present day to adduce arguments more pointedly directed than those of the author against the abuse which it was his purpose to reform.

'It is not the translator's intention to assert, that a previous consideration of these circumstances led him to undertake the present version of the poem. The truth is, that having of late enjoyed a greater share of leisure than he has formerly experienced, he has employed some part of it pleasantly to himself, if not usefully to others, in an occupation, which without requiring the exertion of original composition, satisfies the *besoin d' agir*, and by calming the reproaches, allays the irritation of total indolence. He must also be allowed to observe, that the hope of promoting in some degree the laudable object which the author himself had in view, if it did not lead him to undertake the translation, operated as a chief inducement to lay it before the public. That the character and manners of our countrymen, both in higher and lower life, affords but too much room for reform, is an assertion which may be made without incurring the imputation of moroseness; but till we can decidedly point out those circumstances which give rise to this laxity, not to say depravity of manners of the present day, it will be to no purpose to adopt measures for their improvement. Of these causes the custom, still so prevalent, of committing the children of the richer and middle ranks of society to be brought up by the poor, is, in the opinion of the translator, one of the most efficacious, and like all other vicious institutions, its effects are injurious to all the parties who engage in it. The

reason generally assigned by medical men for promoting a custom which has of late received their almost universal sanction, is, that the mode of living which now prevails in the higher ranks, is such, as renders it impossible for a woman to afford her infant those advantages which are indispensably necessary to its existence and support. But is it possible to conceive a severer satire against the female sex than this assertion implies? Such it seems is the rage for pleasure and amusement, that it must be gratified even by the sacrifice of the most important duties of life, and by a practice, which, if generally extended, would endanger the very existence of the human race. The assistance of a nurse is not then intended as a benefit to the child, but as a licence to the mother to pursue her gratifications, without those restraints which the performance of her own proper and indispensible duties would impose upon her, and by the due exercise of which she would find her health and her affections equally improved.'

This translation is addressed, with great propriety, to Mrs. Roscoe, in the following sonnet; by which it appears that Mr. R. joins to the knowlege and precepts of Tansillo, his own domestic experience of their efficacy.

'As thus in calm domestic leisure blest,
I wake to BRITISH notes the AUSONIAN strings,
Be thine the strain; for what the poet sings
Has the chaste tenor of thy life exprest.
And whilst delighted, to thy willing breast,
With rosy lip thy smiling infant clings,
Pleas'd I reflect, that from those healthful springs
—Ah not by thee with niggard love represt—
Six sons successive, and, thy later care,
Two daughters fair, have drank; for this be thine
Those best delights approving conscience knows,
And whilst thy days with cloudless suns decline,
May filial love thy evening couch prepare,
And sooth thy latest hours to soft repose.

W. R.'

No work could require more delicacy of expression to render it fit for the public eye, and inviting to the fair readers whom it most concerns;—and we have great pleasure in observing that Mr. Roscoe, without enfeebling the force of the original ideas, has had the address to clothe the sentiments, descriptions, and censures of maternal neglect and want of natural affection, in language so delicate, that we might read it aloud to an assembly of females, without calling a blush to the cheek of the most angelic innocence and purity. It is, however, but just to our countrywomen to own, that the custom of denying to infants the nourishment which nature intended for them is more seldom practised than formerly. We know that instances might be given of personages of the highest rank and beauty sacrificing ease, pleasure, and public admiration, in order to perform

in person the first and most important duty of a nurse; and we have great reason for believing that, frequently when the mother has relinquished this duty, it has been caused more by the persuasion of others, and by a total ignorance of the fatal consequences which may arise to themselves as well as to their offspring by transferring the task to a substitute, than by a want of natural affection.—Two terrific dangers are often suggested to them at the beginning of their maternal state: Infringement of Liberty, and Diminution of Beauty and Attractions;—without ever reminding them of the still greater danger to both from the consequences of attempting to counteract the laws of nature.

The author of this production has so plainly and scientifically explained the fatal effects to which the mother is exposed, as well as the child, by employing hireling nurses; and his information and precepts are expressed with such elegance and energy in the translation; that we cannot but regard its appearance in our language, with such advantages, as likely to become a public and national benefit.

The poem consists of two cantos. The exordium of the first, with which we shall present our readers, will impress them with a favourable opinion of the beauty, force, and utility of the rest.

'Accomplish'd Dames, whose soft consenting minds
The rosy chain of willing Hymen binds!
If e'er one prouder wish my bosom felt
By magic strains the listening soul to melt,
(Mov'd by such strains the woodlands Orpheus drew,)
That wish inspires me whilst I sing to you.
—What though the pleasing bonds no more I prove;
I own your charms, nor e'er shall cease to love;
Not with such love as feeds a wanton flame,
—Attended close by penitence and shame!
But Love, that seeks by nobler arts to please,
True to your honour, happiness, and ease.

'Light were my task, if every gentle breast
Own'd the just laws of native truth imprest;
For not by hopes of vain applause misled,
In reason's injur'd cause alone I plead.
'Tis yours to judge; nor I that judgment fear,
If truth be sacred and if virtue dear.'

After having described, with more delicacy than in the original, the sufferings which a mother endures with patience during the period of gestation, the translation presents us with these charming lines:-

'But when reliev'd from danger and alarms,
The perfect offspring leaps into her arms,

Turns to a mother's face its asking eyes,
And begs for pity by its tender cries;
Then, whilst young life its opening powers expands,
And the meek infant spreads its searching hands,
Scents the pure milk-drops as they slow distill,
And thence anticipates the plenteous rill,
From her first grasp the smiling babe she flings,
Whilst pride and folly seal the gushing springs;
Hopeful that pity can by her be shewn,
Who for another's offspring quits her own.'

To ladies who seem to love their lap-dogs better than their children, the author is not very partial:

'Yon favorite lap-dog that your steps attends,
Peru, or Spain, or either India sends.
What fears ye feel, as slow ye take your way,
Lest from its path the minion chance to stray!
At home on cushions pillow'd deep he lies,
And silken slumbers veil his wakeful eyes;
Or still more favoured, on your snowy breast
He drinks your fragrant breath, and sinks to rest;
Whilst your young babe, that from its mother's side
No threats should sever, and no force divide,
In hapless hour is banish'd far aloof
Not only from your breast—but from your roof,'

After having pointed out the evils which spring from the contamination of blood, by the food drawn from corrupted sources, Tansillo thus happily concludes the first Canto:

'——— O sun of truth appear,
From error's gloom the female mind to clear!
Shades of false honour, darker mists of pride,
Touch'd by the beam ethereal quick subside.
Self-love his long prescriptive rule foregoes,
And every feature with THE MOTHER glows.
Enough, ye fair, the dread neglect has cost,
The ills experienced, and the pleasures lost;
Yet ah forgive the bard, whose venturous strain
Has dared to give your gentle breasts a pain.'

In the second period of Canto II. the author thus manifests his zeal, tenderness, and benevolent wishes for the happiness of his fair pupils:

'Ah yet, ye fair, shall come that happier day
When love maternal shall assert her sway,
And crowning every joy of married life,
Join the fond mother to the faithful wife;
When every female heart her rule shall own,
From the straw cottage to the splendid throne;
Nor e'er for aught that fortune can bestow,
A mother's sacred privilege forego.

And

And may the fates, ye fair, your years prolong,
To see accomplish'd all your poet's song.'

The effects of infantine attractions on an affectionate nurse, when luckily found, are thus expressed:

'Twas nature's purpose, that the human race
Should, with the circling lapse of years, increase;
And well her kind providing cares foresaw
Your dread infringement of her primal law;
Hence to the babe she gave endearing wiles,
Resistless blandishments, and artless smiles,
That from your arms, unfeeling mothers, thrown,
Some softer breast the tender pledge might own;
Fulfil th' important task by you betray'd,
And find the generous labour well repaid.'

What Mother can part with her infant, after having perused the following lines?

'That piercing shriek, from anguish keen that flows,
Disturbs no distant mother's bland repose;
Those looks, that speak the inmost soul, impart
No kindred feelings to a mother's heart;
Not her's the prompt and interposing arm
When dangers threaten, or when fears alarm;
Alike to her whate'er her child sustains,
Its smiles, or tears, its pleasures, or its pains.'

The author has described the unreasonable demands, the insolence, impertinence, selfishness, insatiable appetites and avarice, obstinacy, and want of feeling, of hireling nurses, taken into a house as inmates, in colours so strong, that we hope and believe that the picture is overcharged for this country, however it may have resembled Italian wet-nurses more than 200 years ago. Indeed, the English translator has candidly and humanely enumerated, in a note, the hardships which frequently befall a nurse, when obliged, for a maintenance, to quit her home and her child, and to transfer all her care and affection to the offspring of a capricious, tyrannical, and unfeeling mother: jealous, if the child smiles on the nurse during its repast; and suspicious, if it cries, that it is neglected, ill fed, or cruelly treated.

This admirably moral and didactic poem is terminated by injunctions which maternal feelings, in a well-framed mind, surely cannot resit:

'——— By duty led, ye nuptial fair,
Let the sweet office be your constant care,
With peace and health in humblest station blest,
Give to the smiling babe the fostering breast;
Nor if by prosperous fortune placed on high,
Think aught superior to the dear employ.'—

'And

'And you, whose hearts with gentle pity warm,
Pure joys can please and genuine pleasures charm,
Clasp your fair nurslings to your breasts of snow,
And give the sweet salubrious streams to flow,
Let kind affections sway without controul,
And thro' the milk-stream pour the feeling soul.
—What tho' th' inveterate crime, the dire disgrace,
From elder years to modern times we trace,
Nor earthly laws its wasteful rage restrain,
Be yours the task to break the wizard chain;
So shall the glorious deed your sex inspire,
All earth applaud you, and all heaven admire.

'O happier times, to truth and virtue dear.
Roll swiftly on! O golden days appear!
Of noble birth, when every matron dame,
Shall the high meed of female merit claim;
Then loveliest, when her babe in native charms
Hangs on her breast or dances in her arms,
Thus late with angel grace along the plain,
Illustrious DEVON led Britannia's train;
And whilst by frigid fashion unreprest,
She to chaste transports open'd all her breast,
Joy'd her lov'd babe its playful hands to twine
Round her fair neck, or midst her locks divine,
And from the fount with every grace imbued,
Drank heavenly nectar, not terrestrial food.'

Mr. Roscoe has here very judiciously omitted the names of some illustrious Italian ladies, whom Tansillo wished to convert to his doctrines, and has paid a well-turned compliment to the Duchess of Devonshire; who disdained not to perform the task of fostering her own offspring, and to furnish an example of maternal tenderness to the most beautiful and high-born females of our country.

We have been so pleased with the subject of this poem, and with the manner in which it has been treated, and so gratified by the elegance and accuracy of the translation; that we began to think, as PRAISE and BLAME, with the reasons for both, comprehend the whole office of a critic, that here only one half of that duty would be performed; and that we should have no opportunity of manifesting perspicacity in detecting errors, though indulged with so many of pointing out beauties. We are indeed reduced to the meanest part of our employment, by becoming "word catchers, who live on syllables," and have nothing left with which to feed our severity except a few unwarrantable rhymes, to which a provincial pronunciation seems to have given birth. We must however point out some of them; hoping that the author of this excellent translation will, in a future edition, deem the following defective rhymes worthy

of

of reformation. A few of them seem of Irish extraction, but we can easily trace the rest from the colloquial dialect of Cheshire and Lancashire:

Canto I.	Canto II.
P. 5. misled—plead.	P. 33. ear—bear.
13. denies—destroys.	57. wait—cheat.
ib. shares—rears.	ib. noise—cries.
19. beak—take,	ib. feast—taste.
29. disease—days.	63. sense—innocence.
	ib. high—employ.

We cannot close this article without observing that the book, printed at Liverpool, furnishes a pleasing example of the improved state of our typography: for, though issuing from a provincial press, we have seen few publications which can boast more beauty of type, paper, or accuracy of text. If any thing be left to wish in a work so well edited, it is that the translation should correspond more exactly with the arrangement of the original text, for the convenience of collation.

ART. VIII. *An Essay on the Gout*, in which is introduced a candid Examination, and a Refutation attempted, of Dr. Latham's Principles, lately published on this Subject; and others advanced, deduced from Facts occurring in the Author's own Case, and from his practical Experience of many Years. By George Wallis, M. D. 8vo. pp. 203. 4s. sewed. Robinsons. 1798.

THE work of Dr. Latham, which is here examined, was reviewed in our 22d volume, N.S. p. 348. The opinion stated by him is that the seat both of the rheumatism and gout is "in the exquisitely fine and slender radicles of the lymphatic vessels."—In contradiction of this doctrine, the present writer argues that

'The lymphatic system is a system of itself, independent of either that of the arteries or veins; that it originates from the surface of the machine, and every cavity of the body, however minute, and takes up its fluid from those surfaces, which it conveys by means of its irritability, elastic power, and the influence it receives from the nervous system, to parts of the machine for which it is by nature destined.

'Now what particular effects are we to suppose to be produced in the minute part of this system to occasion those symptoms by which the Gout is manifested? From the reasoning of which the Doctor has made use, it must be obstruction of the lymphatic system. The Doctor has shewn, it is true, that obstruction in that system will occasion pain, distension, and turgescence in the parts below that obstruction, whether caused by indurated glands, or the loss of parts of the system itself, which prevent the fluids from being carried sufficiently quickly through the course of circulation; but the obstruction formed in

in the Gout is confined to the most minute radicles of the lymphatics; consequently, in the more superior parts, no such obstructions can take place, because the sources, from whence the lymphatic system is supplied, are blocked up; and then, under these circumstances, there would rather be a defect than superabundance of fluids; consequently, pain and distension could not be produced, as the former he allows to be the result of the latter.

'But suppose obstruction to take place in these radicles, the streams which supply fluids for the inhalant vessels would be superabundant; and as they could not be absorbed, the exhalant might experience the effect, which is more likely, agreeably to the Doctor's own position.'

Leaving these disputes, however, we shall give Dr. Wallis's history of the first fit of gout which attacked himself, and which he considers as a simple fit occurring in a good constitution:

'At the onset, I found myself oppressed with a general languor and lassitude; fatigued with trifling exercise, and experienced a debility through the whole of my system, attended with slight chills, sometimes succeeded by flushing heats; my pulse was frequent, yet languid; my appetite impaired, not relishing with any pleasure my food, be it of what nature it would; though I rather gave the preference to that of the mild insipid kind, than made dishes, so called, or highly seasoned viands; my tongue was slightly furred, without any increase of thirst; upon eating anything, there came on a load and heaviness at my stomach; and I had frequently a rumbling of wind in my bowels, with an uneasy sensation of fulness; my habit was costive, and *sordes alvi ejecta fuit glutinosa, et coloris potius subalbidi*; my urine, at first very pale, soon became high-coloured, and much less in quantity; my skin was dry; and though I have a natural propensity to perspire freely in bed at night, at this time I had no such appearance; my sleep was unpleasant and unrefreshing, and now and then I felt oppressed, when laid on my back, though in a slight degree, with what is called the night-mare; my dreams were of the frightful, sometimes horrid kind; my hearing was not so acute as natural to me, and in my ears I had often a sensation similar to the sound from the stroke upon a bell, whilst objects at a small distance appeared to me as if enveloped in a slight mist.

'In this situation I remained for some days, about a week; towards the close of which, I felt a pain in the centre of the thick bulbous part, called the ball of the great toe, in my right foot, which I thought originated from a sharp pebble that had got into my shoe, and insinuated itself under that part; it had that feel exactly; this pain continued to teaze me for three days, and now and then, in particular positions of my foot, as I walked, was very acute, though transitory.

'My medical friends, with whom I at that time associated, considered my complaint as the attack of a slow fever, brought on by close application to study, and living too low, in proportion to the exercise I took. In this opinion I was willing to coincide, more probably

bably from fear than reflection; for of this disease I always had a horrid dread; the severe sufferings of my father for many years from the Gout, had left such a painful impression on my mind, as neither philosophy nor medical confidence could conquer.

'However, I was soon relieved from this state of error; for, early on the fourth morning, I was wakened with the most excruciating pain in my toe and foot, infinitely superior to any thing I had ever experienced; most acute in the central point of which I first complained. But notwithstanding my pain in those parts was so much increased, I found the whole of the general symptoms, with which I was first affected, greatly alleviated, and many of them totally gone; the chief of what remained were a load at my stomach after eating, fulness of the intestinal canal from flatulence, and costiveness.

'In a little time my foot began to swell, and continued to increase for some days, having a highly inflammatory appearance, a bright polished redness on the surface of the skin, and at the same time the parts all around it were œdematous. After this the pain began gradually to decrease, gentle general perspiration came on every evening, and an increased moisture on the diseased foot; but in the joint of the great toe, and great part of the metatarsal, or small bones of the foot, at their junctures, there remained for some time great debility, which again recovered their usual strength by very slow degrees; for, from the beginning of the fit to my being perfectly re-established, six weeks had elapsed.

'I should have observed, that, before the attack, I enjoyed my usual state of good health.'

On this history Dr. Wallis thus remarks:

'After attentively considering the whole of the symptoms, tracing their progression from the onset to the termination, and then taking them collectively, I was by no means satisfied with any former opinions I had read concerning the Gout, much less with the general mode of cure recommended in this disease, particularly in cases constitutionally similar to my own. The symptoms which preceded the painful paroxysm, or the pain itself, appeared not to be of the inflammatory kind, though external inflammation was the common consequence, but much more forcibly to be affections of the nervous system. I would be understood here, from the beginning, to that perceptible alteration of my pain (see pages 35 to 41); for here I consider the real gouty fit concludes.'

Considering the Gout as being a nervous affection, Dr. Wallis proceeds to account for the presence of 'its characteristic symptom, Pain.' This, he tells us, 'is occasioned by stimulus in the first instant; spasm, soon after; and distension, still later.' We are afterward informed 'that this stimulus depends upon some acrimony deposited on the nervous fibrillæ of the part affected, separated from the mass of fluids; which acrimony we call arthritic.' To our ears, an equal degree of information would be conveyed, if we were told that the cause of gout was a gouty cause!—On this subject, the Doctor must excuse

excuse us if we remind him of a paragraph in his own book, which runs thus: 'To men who are content with words, and are polite or partial enough to sacrifice common sense at the shrine of superstitious credulity, such language may carry with it an air of plausibility; but not to men who can or dare use their reasoning faculties.'

With respect to the cure, Dr. Wallis recommends, on the approach of the disease, a purgative to be given; and, on the following day, an emetic of the antimonial kind. On the attack of pain, he prescribes *patience*, flannel, and saline mixture, or whatever else may tend to promote a gentle perspiration; and afterward, if necessary, some of the strengthening aromatic bitters, with preparations of steel.

Some useful rules are also laid down as to the regimen necessary to be observed by persons actually labouring under gouty complaints; as well as by those who are occasionally liable to this disease: but for these we must refer to the publication.

On the whole, though our knowlege of the cause of gout is not increased by this essay; and though nothing that is either very new or very efficacious is added to the common mode of treatment; yet many of the observations here presented to us are judicious, and deserve applause.

Art. IX. *A Third Dissertation on Fever.* Part I. Containing the History and Method of Treatment of a regular continued Fever, supposing it is left to pursue its ordinary Course. By George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 260. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1798.

To this continuation of his treatise on fever *, Dr. Fordyce has prefixed the celebrated passage from the thirty-fifth canto of the *Orlando Furioso*, in which Ariosto has founded a beautiful allegory on the difficulty of acquiring fame. The Doctor has no inconsiderable claim to the offices of the *sacred swans*, which are said, by the poet, to rescue favoured names from the stream of oblivion; and if Reviewers can be supposed to share in so exalted a duty, he will escape the fate which has so often engulphed

"*De' ricchi nomi la memoria degna.*"

In this division of his work, the author first distinguishes that disease which is properly termed a regular continued fever, from other disorders that have been confounded with it. One

* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxi. p. 91.

criterion

criterion of this fever, he observes, is that it increases for a certain time from its beginning; remains for some time at its height; then, without any apparent cause, gradually diminishes; and terminates in health. Otherwise, a crisis takes place during its progress, and carries off the disease; or the crisis converts it into an intermittent; or, in its progress, it produces topical inflammation; or it kills the patient. He applies this definition to a variety of cases, which might be confounded with fever by superficial observers,—but which differ from it, in his opinion, because they depend, for their continuance, on the constant action of their exciting cause; as in the instances of Gout, Rheumatism, Phlegmon, or Erysipelas.

In those febrile cases in which a pleuritic affection arises, and carries off the fever, he supposes that an ephemera had taken place in the first instance: but, when the fever continues, after the removal of the intervening pleurisy, he thinks that a regular fever had first occurred, which had been only diminished, not cured, by the pleurisy; and which therefore must run its course, after the removal of the topical inflammation.

We pay great deference to the author's opinions: but, in the present instance, we think that he has assumed too much. If a pleurisy does not always cure a general fever, it may be explained from many other causes than those assigned by Dr. F. Much depends on the degree and the duration of the inflammatory symptoms: they may take place to an extent sufficient only to palliate, not to cure, the disease of the general system. Much, also, depends on the method of cure adopted for the removal of the topical disease. Dr. Fordyce ought to prove that a general fever cannot be extinguished by partial inflammation, if this supposition be necessary to his system: but, instead of producing proof, he only asserts the necessity of making nice discriminations. Above all things, it is requisite that distinctions should be true; and in this instance, we think that he has by no means established his position.

To shew the difference between general inflammation and fever, the author has introduced an account of the practice of exhibiting Peruvian bark, during the continuance of acute rheumatism. We shall extract this passage; because many of our readers, at a distance from the metropolis, may wish to acquire a distinct idea of a method which has created some wonder, but has been little understood.

'When rheumatism excites general inflammation, the general inflammation frequently appears to be the principal disease; and until lately practitioners have thought it ought to be carried off by large evacuations, especially by bleeding. Dr. Hugh Smith, an extraordinary

dinary practitioner, conceived that the evening attacks of violent pain, frequently happening in acute rheumatism, were the returns of the paroxysms of an intermittent. He therefore exhibited the bark of the cinchona, in the quantity of an ounce and an half, during the interval of the pain, although the pulse continued hard, full, strong and frequent, and thus succeeded in preventing the return of the pain. This practice has since been adopted with success by many practitioners. Some have even employed the bark of the cinchona in acute rheumatism, where there was no remission of pain, but in the cases the author has seen, without effect. While it was the practice to remove the general inflammation by bleeding, metastasis frequently took place to the interior parts of the body, and destroyed the patient. This accident in the author's practice during the last fifteen years has rarely happened. In this period he has entirely left off bleeding in acute rheumatism; and has not lost above two or three patients, although he has treated several hundreds in this disease. This may be considered as a digression; but it is intended to shew, that general inflammation, in this case, has nothing in its treatment similar to fever.'

We observe nothing particularly new, or striking, in the author's theory of sleep. He supposes it to be an interval of rest which is equally necessary for repairing both mental and muscular fatigue; and that, during its continuance, some powers of the mind are more especially in a state of rest:—but he does not attempt to explain why only the organs of voluntary motion require intervals of repose, while the involuntary actions are continued without fatigue. The comparison of the human system to an hydraulic machine, which extends through several pages, serves to illustrate, but does not in any respect explain, these obscure phænomena.

In the general history of the paroxysm of continued fever, and in accounting for its return, the author follows the outlines of Dr. Cullen; though his peculiar mode of expression, which resembles the diffuseness of an extemporaneous lecture, may convey to the student an impression of originality.

Dr. Fordyce has given, at considerable length, his sentiments on the putrefaction of the fluids, which has been supposed sometimes to take place in fevers. He thinks that this occurrence is always an effect of the depression of strength which the fever produces.—He next enters into the distinction between delirium and mania; and he takes occasion to observe that he has never seen suppuration in the brain, on opening patients who have died delirious. He seems to think it possible, (p. 104,) that delirium may arise in fever as an affection of the mind only, independently of any affection of the material part of the body. Another species of delirium he believes to depend on congestion in the brain.—The symptoms

of

of these different species are described very accurately, and with great acuteness of observation. The celebrated doctrine of the critical days is explained on Dr. Cullen's principle, that continued fevers observe, in some degree, the type of intermittents. Dr. F. remarks, however, that not above one third of the fevers, which happen in London, are terminated by a crisis.

In particularizing the symptoms, the Doctor describes a state of the tongue which indicates a severe disease, and which has not been sufficiently marked by practical writers. It is not uncommon, he says, for the middle of the tongue to lose the brown fur, and to appear, when moist, cleaner and rawer than it is in its natural state; and, when dry, with a degree of polish, as if it were glazed over. We have had opportunities of remarking this symptom, in lingering and hazardous cases of fever.

The natural means of recovery are stated by Dr. F. to be two; one of these is a crisis, which terminates the disease generally in the second or third week, in less than 24 hours; the other is the gradual diminution of the disease, after the fourteenth day. He observes that sometimes depression of strength, sometimes the violence of the crisis, and sometimes the delirium, will produce fatal consequences. He therefore states the questions, whether the fever should be left to run its course; or, whether means should be used to carry it off; and what those means are. After a long digression, on the meaning of the word 'nature,' as applied to the salutary actions of the system, (which he refers, as we suppose all rational physicians do, to the appointment of the Deity,) we are much disappointed by finding the author unable to determine, even from his own long experience, whether medicine possesses any efficacy in removing fever, in the first instance. The very candour of such a confession renders it more discouraging; and we must take the liberty of saying that, in this instance, Dr. F. is too sceptical. On this subject, he refers to his plan for establishing medical evidence on a permanent footing, which was published some years ago in the *Medical and Chirurgical Transactions*; a plan which we consider as impracticable, because no individual could expect to complete it in the course of his own life; and it appears, too plainly, that we profit little by the most detailed experience of others. To render such a scheme successful, it would be necessary that all medical men should be equally well-informed, equally lovers of truth, and equally capable of observation. This condition, without which the formulæ of the reports would be nugatory, is conclusive against the project.

Passing on, then, to the means of conducting the patient safely through a fever, the author, with a degree of circumlocution which many readers will deem unnecessary, directs the method of warming the air of the chamber, when it is requisite; and of keeping the patient in an equal temperature, by attention to his bed and coverings. On the subject of ventilation, Dr. F. seems to think that the atmosphere is every where nearly the same; and that, in order to introduce a sufficient quantity of pure air into a given space, it is only necessary that the air should not stagnate. On this occasion, he speaks of the supposed advantage of employing a higher proportion of pure air, according to the chemical pathology; and he places the fallacy of the expectation in a very striking point of view.

'Whenever (he says) any new and seemingly important fact has been discovered, and especially if it cannot be applied to any advantageous purpose in mechanical or chemical arts, mankind in general, and very often even practitioners in medicine, conceive it must be applicable to some medicinal purpose, just as an infant, allured by any thing which glitters in its eye, applies it to its mouth, supposing it must be likewise exquisite food; so infants in medicine are dazzled with any surprizing discovery, and immediately employ it for the cure of diseases, not considering how extremely difficult an art medicine is; how fallacious experiments made in it often are, as has been observed long ago by Hippocrates, and by what slow degrees valuable medicines have had their powers investigated; how long it was before the effects of the bark of the cinchona, of mercury, of antimony, were brought to light, as far as they are already known.' (*P.* 175, 6.)

Respecting the diet of the patient, we find much minute discussion,—more useful, perhaps, to students than practitioners; because, though a diffuse explanation may gratify the former, we apprehend that the latter will discover very little novelty in the author's directions.

In making this observation, we do not wish to imply any charge of plagiarism against this respectable writer. In the number of years during which he has taught medicine in his lectures, he has communicated to a considerable part of the profession his ideas on most of the subjects concerning which he now treats; and, in this manner, he may be said to have anticipated his own publication. When we remark a want of novelty, therefore, it is not for the purpose of discrediting the writer, who is laudably anxious to present full information, but to account for our passing over several important divisions of the treatise, without making either a criticism or an extract.

Dr. F. thinks that patients, in fever, should be allowed to drink as much as they choose, and of the temperature which

shall be most agreeable to them. The necessity of exhibiting an emetic, early in the disease, is then copiously explained. 'It may be,' he observes, 'that something like the same crust, that is formed on the tongue, may also be formed upon the surface of the stomach, and be evacuated by the emetic.' The propriety of using laxatives, when the bowels are loaded with fæces, is discussed in the same manner.—The neutral salts are recommended, in the first instance; and when it becomes necessary to repeat the laxative, we are told that cassia, manna, together with senna, rhubarb, or sulphur, are to be employed. When several laxatives are mixed together, the Doctor says, their operation is more easy, and their effect more certain.

After the first week, glysters are recommended, in preference to laxatives given internally.

Respecting the exhibition of opium in fever, the author's observations demand particular attention, as they appear to be the result of much and accurate experience. We confess, however, that we have not remarked the inconvenience which he describes as arising from opium, employed in doses of half a grain, given three or four times in a day.

'About five and twenty years ago there arose a practice in St. Thomas's Hospital of exhibiting opium in a much less quantity, to wit, in the quantity of a quarter of a grain for a dose, and repeating it at the end of every six or eight hours. When given in such doses it produces no immediate effect; but by degrees the patient falls into a stupor which gradually increases; and although this stupor does not end in a complete sleep, yet it grows in a day or two into that kind of stupor that we find, when the delirium from the fever, with apparent fulness of the vessels of the brain, begins to diminish. It is true, indeed, that this dose of opium is obtained by adding a few drops of laudanum to that mixture which is called mithridate, but the author has often employed the opium in his private practice, with ten grains of castor, with equal or rather better effect.'

'Lately many practitioners have exhibited opium three or four times in the twenty-four hours in fevers, having borrowed their practice probably from that which has been pursued in St. Thomas's Hospital, the practice of the Hospital being open to the inspection of many pupils. These practitioners have not learned however, that it is the smallness of the dose that produces beneficial effects; if the dose be increased so far as half a grain, the same restlessness, the same disturbed sleep, dreams, &c. as have been noticed, are brought on.'

The *Spiritus Ætheris Vitriolici* is recommended, in doses of a drachm at bed-time, or repeated every six hours, as procuring sleep in many cases, though uncertain in its operation. This remedy, which many of our readers will remember to have known celebrated as a *febrifuge*, in the language of the last age,

has certainly a considerable effect in composing the irregular actions of the circulating system, when given in sufficient doses.

On the subject of administering stimulants, the author observes that they should be so directed as to rouse the dormant powers of the body, and keep them in action till the disease abates. The use of blisters, at the *end* of continued fevers, is condemned. We imagine that no judicious practitioner, of the present day, thinks of employing blisters as the means of supporting strength. Wine is the chief remedy proposed by Dr. Fordyce for this purpose. Four ounces of Port wine in a day, he thinks, are sufficient for persons who are not previously accustomed to it; and three half-pints in twenty-four hours, even for those who have been in the habit of drinking it largely.

With this view of the treatment of a regular continued fever, the author concludes this part of his Dissertation. In the next, which is announced as in great forwardness, he proposes to inquire particularly into the effects of the principal remedies which have been supposed to shorten the duration of fever.

We cannot conclude without recommending this work, in the strongest terms, to the attention of those who are beginning the study of medicine: for they will find it a treasure of facts and arguments. There are, indeed, many passages which will enlighten and instruct even veteran practitioners: but we apprehend that it will be better relished by the younger part of the profession. We expect much information from the succeeding part, according to the sketch here given of it.

Art. X. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΕΚΑΒΗ. *Euripidis Hecuba, ad fidem MSS. emendata*, &c.

Art. XI. In Euripidis Hecubam *Londini nuper publicatam Diatribe extemporalis. Composuit* Gilbertus Wakefield.

Art. XII. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΟΡΕΣΤΗΣ. *Euripidis Orestes, ad fidem MSS. emendata*, &c.

[Art. continued from p. 207.]

Whether our readers would regret the accident which prevented the appearance of this continuation in the last month's Review, or would deem the omission a necessary and pleasing relaxation, is a point which we dare not assume the liberty of determining.—They may, however, be assured that, if the works before us could have been fairly and accurately examined in a critique of less extent, an abridged form would

have been to us the most agreeable.—We do not often offend thus; and, therefore, we hope for pardon.—To proceed:

ΕΚΑΒΗ, 606. ——τοῦτο δ' ἤν τις ἐν μάθῃ
Οἰδεν τί γ' αἰσχρὸν, κανόνι τῷ καλῶν μαθών.

Mr. Porson proposes, though aware that Euripides often repeats the same word, μέλῃσιν for μαθὼν, and defends it by Electr. 52.—κανόσιν ἀναμέλῃσιμενος.

Mr. W. allows that the passage is corrupt, but rejects μετρῶν, for reasons to which we do not subscribe; and he reads (dashing out the final N) ΟΙΔΕ το—ΣΤΑΘΜΩΝ. He then refers to Ion. 1156. Æsch. Ag. 1054. Soph. Œ. T. 1111.

It appears far from certain that any emendation is necessary. Μέλῃσιν is, however, an ingenious alteration: for so Aristophanes, also: Ὀρθῷ μέλῃσω κανόνι. *Avib.* 1004. and we find in Apollonius Rhod. I. 724. κανονεσσι—μελήσασθαι. Σταθμῶν is indefensible; for the *active present* of this Verb is totally unauthorised. Hence H. Stephens rightly says: Σταθμάω, *seu potius* Σταθμάομαι. Thesaur. I. 1742. G. This latter form is found in HERODOTUS VII. 237. p. 616. 100. Σταθμώμενος: though he uses, III. 15. p. 201. 80. and VII. 214. p. 605. 70. Σταθμωσασθαι, from Σταθμώομαι. In both these places, the reading should probably be Σταθμήσασθαι; for Σταθμησάμενος occurs in IX. 37. p. 710. 69. which form is defended by Suidas, *in Voc.* and by the MSS. in which there does not appear to be any variation. So ESCHYLUS, Agam. 172. Ἐπισταθμώμενος. SOPHOCLES, O.T. 1111. Σταθμᾶσθαι. TRAGICUS INCERTUS, quoted by Philo Judæus, in *Lib. quisq. stud. virtuti*, Vol. II. p. 469.

——— τῇ ῥεῖῃ σταθμώμενος
Τὰ πάντα.——

This fragment, Joshua Barnes (for sagacious reasons, doubtless,) numbers among the remains of the Syleus of Euripides. It has been judiciously omitted by Musgrave.

ARISTOPHANES. *Ran.* 797.

Καὶ γὰρ ταλάντῳ μουσικὴ σταθμήσεται.

where, as the future middle is used in a passive sense, κριθήσεται seems the better lection, which the Etymologist gives *, in Voc. Τάλαντον. Suidas *in eadem Voc.*, Brunck's MSS., and the *Codex Ravenn.* so wretchedly published by Invernizius, exhibit σταθμήσεται. Kuster quotes Suidas, and mentions this variation in the Etymologist; which, he observes, is also to be found in some MSS. of Pollux, IX. 52. [Vol. II. p. 1016.] where this

* This reference to the Etym. Magn. is borrowed without acknowlegement from Kuster, by Brunck in his notes on Aristophanes.

verse, or one "*qui huic valde sit similis*," appears. Callimachus also, it may be added, (though not completely to our purpose,) has σλαθμήσασθαι, in a fragment, [XCIV. Vol. I. p. 462.] preserved by Achilles Tatius *in Aratum*, c. 1, and by Diogenes Laertius [I. 23. Vol. I. p. 15.] *in Vit. Thaletis.*

It must be noted that the first aorist active occurs in the Ion of Euripides, 1156.

Πλέθρου σλαθμήσας μῆκος εἰς ἐυζώνων,

where we would read μέλρήσας μῆκος, influenced by the sense of the passage,—by the *Middle Participle*, Σλαθμησάμενος, in Herodotus, IX. 37.—and by Aristophanes, *Avib.* 1130.

Τὸ δὲ μῆκός ἐσλι, καὶ γαρ ἐμέλρησ' αὐλ' ἐγὼ,
Ἑκαλονλορογνιον. ——

This last word we have substituted for Ἑκαλονλόργυιον, which stands, with a spondeus of ample length *in secunda sede*, in fifteen editions of Aristophanes: Junt. 1525. Gormont. 1528. Basil, 1532. Zanetti, 1538. Weckel, 1540. Farreus, 1542. Brubach, 1544. Gryphius, 1548. Plantin, 1600. Lugd. Bat. 1614 and 1625. Amstel. 1670. Kuster, 1710. Brunck, 1783, and Invernizius, 1794. In the remaining three editions, the Aldine, 1498. the first Juntine, 1515, and the third Juntine, 1540, the word is ἑκατονλόργυιον, which equally destroys the metre. H. Stephens also says: Ἑκαλονλαόργυιος, *Qui centum ulnarum est*: MALIM Ἑκαλονλόργυιον.

In the same way, the *Æolicum tetrametrum*, quoted by Hephæstio, p. 23, very probably from Sappho, must be corrected:

Θυρωρῷ' ποδες ἐπλορόγυιαι.

The lection in Turnebus and Pauw is ἐπλαθόρσυιοι, which is contrary to Hephæstio's own rule, τοὺς δὲ ἐν μέσῳ, δακλύλους πάνλας. Toup, indeed, asserts that O is short before ΡΓ. *Addend.* in Theocrit. XXI. 26. p. 402.—Dorville, who properly rejects the correction of Arnaldus, *Animadv. Critic.* p. 124. Ὀρθά τε γνῖα—says: *Crit. Vann.* p. 437, after a long discussion, "about it and about it:"

"*Mallet tamen ipse vir eruditiss. retinere* ἐπλαθόρσυιοι, *quod sane unicè verum, quod ad sensum. Florent.* * *habet*: θυρόποδες ἐπλαρόγυιοι, *et p.* 90, *rursus* ἐπλαρόσυιοι. *De Metathesi cogitare durum.* ἐπλαρόσυιοι, *vel* ἐπλαόργυιοι, *ea placere possunt.* ἐπλόργυιοι *versus respuit.* ἐνιόρσυιοι *facilè apud Homerum quadrisyllabicum est, non hic* ῥεῖα, ἑρδα, καρδια πραδια *parum juvant. In ludicro poëmatio quid sibi forte permiserit Sappho, nescimus.*"

Thus much from Dorville's note of two pages. As for Pauw's remarks, let them rest in peace. Whatever licence

* Edit. Princeps Hephæstionis, cum Theod. Gaza, Lecapeno, et Emman. Moschopulo, ap. Hæredes Philippi Juntæ, 1526. Octavo.

Sappho

Sappho might allow herself, she never could admit one which would destroy the metre. It is surprising that Dorville did not discover the true word; for the Scholiast on Hephæstio, as he mentions, gives in p. 90 of the first edition, ἐπλαρόγυιοι, which requires only the change of A into O to become the genuine reading: Ἐπλορόγυιοι. Let the Great Etymologist establish the alteration:

Ὀργυίαι σημαίνει τὴν ἴπλασιν τῶν χειρῶν, σὺν τῷ πλαθει τοῦ σλίθους· παρὰ τὸ Ὀρίγειν καὶ Ἐκτείνειν τὰ γυια, ὁ ἐστι τὰς χεῖρας. P. 629. 43. Ὀρόγυια.] Ὀρέγω τὸ ἐκτείνω· ὁ μέσος παρακείμενος, Ὤρεγα. Ἡ μεθοχὴ, Ὠρεγώς· τὸ θηλυκὸν, Ὠρεγῦια. Συστολῇ καὶ τροπῇ, Ὀρόγυια. P. 633. 5.

These emendations, and the reference to the Etymologist, many years after they had occurred to us, we found proposed in some inedited notes on Hephæstio by Mr. Leonard Hotchkis, who styles himself *Scholæ Regiæ Salopensis nuper Magister*. He appears to have formed a plan of publishing this author; and it is to be lamented that he did not execute his design. *

Let us return to Σλαθμᾶσθαι. Valckenaer and Pierson wish to change ἀθρήσας into σλαθμήσας, in the Cyclops, 379.

Δισσούς γ' ἀθρήσας, καὶ πιεσθείσας χεροῖν,

and the latter critic would make the same alteration in a fragment of Eurystheus, *apud. Stob.* 98. and *Musgrav.* VII. Ὀρθῶς σλαθμήσαν'——for ἀθρήσαν'.—Valcken. Diatribe, p. 172. The common reading appears to us sound in both passages: but at any rate the active form σλαθμήσας cannot be admitted, unless authorities for its usage be produced. These places will doubtless be ably examined and weighed, as in a balance, by Mr. Porson, when he arrives at the Cyclops. Let them, together with the banishment of Σλαθμήσας from Ion, 1156. and the introduction of μεθρήσας, be referred to his decision.

It must be observed that, of Mr. Wakefield's three citations to defend Σλαθμῶν, the FIRST, EUR. *Ion*, 1156. gives Σλαθμήσας, which *active aorist*, were it right, could not vindicate the production of an *active present*: the SECOND, ÆSCH. *Agam.* 1054. καὶ παρὰ σλάθμην, exhibits the *substantive*, and can be no defence for the *active present* of the verb; and the THIRD, SOPH. *Œd. Tyr.* σλαθμᾶσθαι, can serve only to prove that the middle form of the verb was in use among the Attic Poets.

* The certainty of these corrections is also evinced from a passage in the MS. Lexicon of Photius, communicated by a learned friend, who also had formed the same emendations in Sappho and Aristophanes. Ὀργυίας λέγουσιν, ἐυχὶ Ὀζυίας. Ἀριστοφάνης. This article must probably be referred to the passage in the *Aves*.

One example more from an Ionic writer—not Herodotus, indeed, though his name stands on the margin of *Stobæus*, XXVIII. p. 197. *—shall conclude this note: Ἄνδρα δὲ ἐσθλὸν ἐστὶ δέξιον, γνώμῃ ΣΤΑΘΜΗΣΑΜΕΝΟΝ, ἀθρῆσαι †.

615—619. Mr. W. proposes a new punctuation, which weakens the passage; and in 619 he changes κόσμον τ' ἀτείρεα, without any sound reason, into κίσμον γ' ἀγ. The verses are sufficiently clear, and require no alteration. The whole passage is admirably adapted to the situation of Hecuba.

661. Τί δ', ὦ τάλαινα φῆς παραγλώσσου βοῆς;

Thus Mr. W. would regulate the punctuation. Mr. P. gives τάλαινα;—Musgrave, Brunck, and most others place a *comma* after τάλαινα. Aldus puts no stop, but adds a *comma* to βοῆς, and places the interrogative mark at the end of the following verse, after κηρύγματα;—As the Aldine and the Basil of 1537 read, as Mr. W. proposes, τάλαιφα σῆς—*nulla mora interposita* they should have been mentioned by him; since the merit of this omission,—whatever it may be,—belongs to those editions.

787. Κοινῆς τραπέζης πολλάκις τυχὼν ἐμοὶ,
Ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ πρῶτος ὢν ἐμῶν φίλων.

R. P. 788. *ξένων multi MSS. male. Aldus et omnes fere MSS.* πρῶτα. *Brunckius ex membr. suis edidit* τὰ πρῶτα, *tantum duplici anapæsto delectatus, quantum alii offenduntur.* ξένια *conjecit Musgravius, quod frigidum et obscurum est. Distinctionem, post ἐμοὶ sublatam, post ξενίας reponit Beckius, quo quid proficiatur, nescio. Omnino post* τυχὼν *aliud participium, quod duo sententiæ membra connectat, requiritur. Cum semel scriptum esset,* πρῶτος ὢν τῶν ἐμῶν φίλων, *aliquis metri studiosus vulgatam inde lectionem effinxit. Simili mendo Aristophanis locum Vesp.* 1429. *Brunckius contaminavit. Sepius* ἵππικὴ *et μουσικὴ sine articulo adhibent Attici. Recte igitur legimus,* Ἐπύγχανεν γὰρ ὢν τρίβων ὢν ἱππικῆς. *Hoc autem Brunckius ignorans, participium, quod erat necessarium, ejecit; articulum, qui non erat necessarius, inseruit.* Ἐπύγχανεν γὰρ ὢν τρίβων τῆς ἱππικῆς.

The whole of Mr. P.'s note is here transcribed, in order to commemorate the emendation of Aristophanes, as well as to give the Editor's sentiments respecting this passage.

Mr. W. defends the reading of Aldus,

Ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ, πρῶτα τῶν ἐμῶν φίλων,

though he omits the comma after ἀριθμῷ. He then cites Homer, Od. P. 155.

Ἴσθι νῦν Ζεὺς ΠΡΩΤΑ ΘΕΩΝ, ξενίη τε τραπέζα.

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* Wesseling, in his notes on Herodotus, p. 605. where he quotes this passage, says: *Tale tanquam ex* Herodoto, *cujus non est, in* Stob.

† Compare with this extract the places in which Valck. and Piers. wish to change ἀθρῆσαι into σταθμῆσαι.

The

The same verse, he might have added, occurs in Od. Ξ. 158. and Υ. 231.—Πρῶτα θεὸν is not the same as τὰ πρῶτα Θεῶν would be, but means: *Primum inter Deos*, seu *ante alios Deos*. [H. Steph. Thes. III. 567. C.] and, πρῶτα τῶν ἐμῶν φιλων may signify, *Primum inter amicos*, or *ante alios amicos*: but what is the construction of ἀριθμῷ, and how is it to be rendered?—τυχὼν κοινῆς τραπέζης, ξενίας τε is plain; and so is πρῶτα τῶν ἐμῶν φ λων, when each member of the sentence is considered separately, and the one is taken independently of the other: but ἀριθμῷ, to whichever it be joined, produces obscurity.

After having considered the Editor's emendation, Mr. W. adds that Mr. P. has observed that a participle is wanting after τυχὼν:

'*Quæ aut recta sunt, aut non. Nobis videtur substantivi verbi participium reticeri potuisse. Ne vero nimis contumaces simus, hoc ei largiamur; et proponamus vicissim probabiliorem restitutionem loci:*

κοινῆς τραπέζης πολλακις τυχὼν ἁμοῦ
ξενιας, ἀριθμῷ πρωτα Τ' ΩΝ ἐμων φιλων:

i. e. "*hospitalitatem communis mensæ mecum participans.*" *Nec dissimulem tamen, mihi non minus hanc formam arridere:*

ξενιας, ἀριθμῷ πρωτα των ἐμων φιλων:

omissâ tantum copulâ; quam, ut putem, ignorata constructio invenit.'

Mr. W.'s fluctuation of opinion is remarkable; first, he is for the lection of Aldus, ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ, in which the connecting participle is wanting. Secondly, though he doubts whether a participle be or be not requisite after τυχὼν,—he reads ἀριθμῷ πρῶτα Τ' ΩΝ, where if Τ' ΩΝ stands for τε ὤν, "COPULA *locum non suum occupat*," to use Mr. Porson's words, *Append. in Toup.* IV. p. 489. where he acutely corrects Callimachus, *ap. Suid.* V. Δύην. from Δυην ἄποθεν τ' ἀπαλάλκοι, into Δύην ΑΠΟΘΗΤΟΝ, vel ἀπόεσσον ἀλάλκοι. Independently, however, of the position of ΤΕ, what meaning must be assigned to πρῶτα, in this alteration? If it be to stand for τὰ πρῶτα, it is inadmissible, as Hemsterhusius in Lucian I. p. 163. and as Brunck in E. Orest. 1251. observe. If it be to take the signification which πρῶτα bears in the verse cited from the Odyssey, how is the passage to be translated? Must it be *Numeroque existens ante alios meos amicos?*

Thirdly, Mr. W. would banish the copulative wholly, and join ἀριθμῶ with πρῶτα τῶν ἐμῶν φίλων. Then it must still be rendered: *Numero ante alios meos amicos.*

No one of Mr. W.'s proposed alterations can be allowed; nor do Brunck and Musgrave deserve any commendation. Mr. Porson's πρῶτος ὢν ε. φ. is ingenious, and shews his nicely accurate knowlege of the Greek language; yet we do not feel completely satisfied.

803—

803—805. Mr. Wakefield proposes to change ἄπολις into ἄποσις. Our protest has already been offered against this imaginary word, in the remarks on V. 285. There is no such compound. Mr. W. assigns as a reason for the necessity of this alteration, '*si clausulas sententiæ singillatim intuearis, liquebit āliter non invenīri quod respondeat voci* τυραννος: *erat enim Hecuba quondum* regina, *quum fuerat* uxor regis.' *Diatr.* p. 29.—In this verse,

Τύραννος ἦν ποθ'. ἀλλὰ νῦν δούλη σέθεν.

the opposition, surely, is strong enough between τύραννος, *a queen*, and δούλη, *a slave*: so that, even if there existed such a word as ἄποσις, its insertion in this passage would be not merely unnecessary, but even improper.

806. Ὀι μοι τάλαινα, ποῖ μ' ὑπεξάγεις πόδα;

G. W. '*Mutatâ saltem literulâ, lectio suboritur, quæ fortassis omne punctum doctorum feret:* —— ποι μ' ὑπεξαγεις ΠΟΔΙ;'

The Dative ποδὶ would rather refer to the person who stands as the Nominative of the Verb ὑπεξάγεις, than to the Pronoun μι. Πόδα is the Accusative of the Instrument or Member by which the motion is effected. Mr. Porson's note on Orest. 1427. has been cited on V. 53.

831. Καὶ χερσὶ, καὶ κόμαισι, καὶ ποδῶν βάσει.

R. P. '*Pro* κόμαισι *primo* κόρσαις, *deinde* κτένισι *conjicit Musgravius. Sed cum omnes MSS. et edd. tum Etym. M. p.* 26. 54. *vulgatam lectionem confirmant.*'

G. W. '*In Ver.* 831. *nihil in hac arte certius emendatione Musgravii* τ *et* καὶ χεισι, καὶ ΚΟΡΑΙΣΙ—*pro vulgata scriptione* κομαισι.'

The authors of the *Bibliotheca Critica* also think that Musgrave's correction is right. We are decidedly hostile to all emendations which are not absolutely demanded, in order to remove some blunder in the sentiment, the construction, or the metre of any passage. As the word κόμαισι is not destitute of sense, the caution of the Editor in not altering the text of his author, without an urgent necessity, merits our commendation. It must be added, also, that Valckenaer quotes this passage in order to compare it with *Phœn.* 318. and does not dispute the old reading. He likewise mentions the citation of the Etym. Magnum.—This verse, with the preceding and following lines, is introduced likewise by Joannes Tzetzes into his Chiliad, I. 19. whom the Editors of Euripides have not mentioned. He preserves the lection of our copies, κόμαισι. We readily grant, however, that κόραισι is an ingenious correction; though it is not defended by any authority.

In this note, Mr. W. proposes an emendation on the *Ajax* of Sophocles, 1209. where he reads κεῖμαι—δρόσοις τεγξομένοις ΚΟ-

ΡΑΣ

ΡΑΣ λιβραὶ, μ. τ. πάμας, λυγρᾶς μνήμαλα Τροίας. This innovation would destroy the whole beauty of the passage. How will ΚΟΡΑΣ δρόσους τεγόμενος, even if δρόσους signifies *tears*, suit κῦμαι, and the preceding part of the Chorus? It seems to degrade the firm character of Ajax's Salaminian Warriors. How will these verses of Sophocles, thus altered, correspond with the account given by the Herald, in the Agamemnon of Æschylus, after his return from the siege of Troy: 560.

Ἐμπαὶ γὰρ ἦσαν δηΐων πρὸς τείχεσιν·
Ἐξ οὐρανοῦ γὰρ κἀπὸ γῆς λειμωνίαι
Δρόσοι καλιψέκαζον ἔμπεδον σίνος
Ἐσθημάτων, τιθέντες ἔνθηρον τρίχα.

An observation might be made on λειμωνίαι and τιθέντες: but we are in expectation of Mr. Porson's notes.—

905. —— καὶα δ' αἰθάλου
Κηλῖδ' ὑιλρολάτρα κέχρωται.

R. P. ' *αἰθάλῳ al. αὐθαλαν κεπνοῦ Ald. et multi MSS. κεπνοῦ omittit* K.'

906. ' R. P. ' *Sic Ald. et MSS. Quidam ὑικλρολάταν.*'

This text exactly gives the reading of Aldus, except the omission of *κεπνοῦ* after *αἰθάλου*, and it appears sufficiently perspicuous. Mr. W. is of a different opinion. He first is surprised that Mr. P.'s *superbissimum judicium* should assent to the elision of the final vowel in *κηλῖδι*, and next he wishes thus to reform the passage:

—— καὶα δ' αιθαλῳ,
ΚΗΛΙΔ' ΟΙΚΤΡΟΤΑΤΑΝ, κεχρωσαι ——

These alterations are gathered, as Mr. W. confesses, from the various lections*. We again repeat that, according to our judgment, the passage, as Mr. Porson gives it from Aldus, requires not alteration.

It may be inquired, however, why the Editor should have been offended with an elision of the final I in a dative singular?—To this question we are unable to give a satisfactory answer.—Has any metrical law been promulgated, by which such an elision is forbidden? Has any critic attempted to establish such a metrical law?—If he has even wished it, let him consult the books, the genuine Attic code; and his opinion will be altered. Ὡς μὲν τοίνυν οὐχὶ καλῶς ὔλὸς ἴχει, καὶ δικαίως, ὁ νόμος, οὖλ' ἐρεῖν ἔμαι ἄὖλὸν, οὔτ', ἐὰν λέγη, δεῖξαι δυνήσεσθαι.

* *αἰθαλῳ* is from *Beckius's Cod.* D. which belongs to *Matthæus*, and from King's Edit.—*ὑικλρολάταν* is proposed by Heath, is published by Musgrave and Brunck, and appears in Musgrave's MS. A. and Lib. P.

In

In the Appendix to Toup, Vol. IV. p. 450. Mr. Porson promulgates this Canon: "*Nunquam elidi vocalem in dativo plurali.*" This rule the reader will find defended and illustrated in the account of the learned Mr. Glasse's Samson Agonistes, Monthly Review, September, 1789, p. 244, in which are examined most of the passages in Euripides that seemed to oppose it.

This Attic law has not been ratified by the decisions of Mr. Wakefield. Does he wish to transfer it to the singular number?—We find in his *Sil. Crit.* IV. p. 231. the following line given in his corrected copy of the Iambics by Aristo, preserved by Theophilus, *ad Autolyc.* IV.

Ἐσ̓τι δὲ καὶ τοις ζωσ' ὁσιως προεδριαι,

in which a Trochæus occupies the first place, and a Pyrrhic the fifth, in a trimeter Iambic. Why not read:

Ἔσ̓τιν δὲ καὶ τοῖς ζῶσιν ὁσίως προεδρία.

The Ε ψιλον in προεδρία, according to Dawes's Canon, *Misc. Crit.* p. 197. cannot possibly be long in Comedy. Hence Aristophanes, in his *Equites*:

575. Νῦν δ' ἐὰν μὴ πρρεδρίαν φέρωσι καὶ τὰ σίλ.α.
702. Ἀπολῶ σε, νὴ τὴν προεδρίαν τὴν ἐκ Πύλου.
703. Ἰδοὺ προεδρίαν· οἷον ὀψομαί σ' ἐγώ.
704. Ἐκ τῆς προεδρίας ἴσχατον θεώμενον.

and so in his *Acharn.* 42. and in his *Thesmoph.* 834.; and so Aristo himself, if the passage be genuine, in the third line of this very fragment. In Tragedy, the quantity of this syllable may vary; as is the case in Orestes, 298. *Edit. Porsoni*, with προεδρία.

Εἰ γὰρ προλείψεις μ', ἡ προεδρία νόσου——

Ζῶσιν, moreover, is the lection of the Edit. Princeps. Tigur. 1546. of Wolfius's Hamb. 1724. and of the Hagæ Comit. 1742. Wolfius proposes Ἔσ̓τιν, and Grotius *Excerpt.* p. 1005. reads Ἀλλ' ἔσ̓τι καὶ τοὶς ζῶσιν.——

At the end of this note is a correction of Hesychius; Αἰθαλωδὴς, καπνωδὴς, σποδωδὴς, instead of σκόλωδης; which merits attention, and is defended by proper authorities.

921. ἐπιδέμνιος ὡς πέσομ' ἐς ἰυναν.

R. P. is silent. G. W. censures '*feda hujusce orationis tautologæ scabitudo*,' and ἐς ΤΗΝΟΝ. This emendation may class with some which have been already noted. Whether ἐς ἰυνὰν or ἐς ὕπνον be the lection, the sense will scarcely be varied. In Herc. F. 1050. we find

——μὴ ζοᾶτε, μὴ
Τὸν εὖ διαύονία [ἰυδιαόυλα conj. Musgr. in Not.]
Τπνώδεα τ' ἰυνᾶς ἐγε-ρέ[ε.

Ne

Ne ex *somno* excitetis. Musgrave. The passage, however, seems defective. Might it not stand:

Ἐπισβέμενον ὡς πέσοιμ' ἐς ἑνυάν.

931—936. Mr. Wakefield proposes some alterations in Mr. Porson's punctuation of this passage, which are for the most part derived from Musgrave. It is not observable that these lines, which are sufficiently clear in the new edition, acquire by these changes any additional perspicuity. In 934. Mr. W. reads ΕΚΙΝΗΣΕ for ἐκ νησιν, which destroys the metre.

970.——ἀλλά τ.ς χρε.α σ' εμου;

Mr. W. proposes rather an aukward emendation:

—— αλλα τις χρειᾳ 'ΣΤ' εμου,

but the passages demand illustration, and not correction. Mr. Porson has performed this duty with his usual ability in the comments on his second Tragedy; where he states that he reserved this passage of the Hecuba, till he wrote his remarks on the Orestes, V. 659. We shall transcribe the whole note, and recommend it to the careful perusal of our readers; as a specimen of that neatness of style, united with acuteness and learned research, which is so eminently displayed in the observations of this Editor.

ORESTES. 659. τί χρὴ φιλων.

"*Sic diserte citat Thomas Magister in.* υ. χρὴ, *addens* ἔστι δὲ τοῦτο ποιητικώτερον. *Ego vero huc primo transferam, quæ annos abhinc plus minus quindecim in Anglica Brunckiani Aristophanis censura scripsi* (H. Maty's *Review*, *July* 1783, *p.* 66.) "Accurate plerumque Aristophanes sententiarum suarum partes alteram alteri respondere facit, ut Av. 1419. ἧδι κἀρίστιν. ἀλλ' ὅτου χρὴ, δεῖ λέγειν. Πτερῶν πτερῶν δεῖ. In priore versu legi debere ὅτου δεῖ, χρὴ λέγειν, clarum est non solum ex apodosi, sed ex eo, quod apud Atticos poëtas genitivum nunquam regit χρή. Unicum, quod obduci posse credo, exemplum, exstat Euripid. Orest. 667. [*ed. Musgrav. sc.*] sed et illud in τί δεῖ φίλων mutandum auctoritate Plutarchi Op. Mor. *p.* 68. *E.* Aristotelis Ethic. IX. 9." *Et quod Aristophanem attinet, anno* 1794 *codicis Ravennatis collationem edidit Invernizius, quæ istam emendationem confirmavit. Ipse tandem τί δεῖ φίλων inveni in MS. quem voco L. Is est Codex Ayscough.* 4952 *in Museo Britannico, tres primas continens fabulas, recentissimus quidem, sed ex alio non malo descriptus; scriba literas et syllabas festinando sæpe transilit; aliquando etiam exemplaris sui literarum ductus parum intellexisse videtur. Restat ut formulam hanc et similes paucis illustremus. Homerus, nisi me fallit Seberi index, semel tantum verbo* δεῖ *usus est, et tum infinitivo præponit Il.* I. 337. *Stobæus quidem XCVIII. p.* 409. *citat ex Il.* Φ. 463. τί γὰρ δὴ δεῖ θνητῶν ἕνεκα πτολεμίζειν pro εἰ δὴ σοί γε, βροτῶν ὕνεκα, πτολεμίζειν. *Cum et Plutarchus Consol, p.* 104. *F.* πτολεμίζειν *habeat, si leges,* εἰ δεῖ σοί γε, βροτῶν ἕνεκα, πτολεμίζειν, *constructionem quandam extundere poteris, sed sensus non bene procedet. Cum infinitivo* χρὴ *sæpissime construit, cum accusativo personæ et rei genitivo*

τίνα *Il.* H. 109. *Od.* A. 124. Γ. 14. Δ. 463. Φ. 110. Χ. 377. *Pari modo substantivum* χρεὼ *cum accusativo et genitivo Il.* I. 75. 603. K. 43. Δ. 605. *Od.* Δ. 634. *In Il.* Φ. 322. οὐδέ τι μιν χρεὼ Ἔσται τυμβοχόης, *alii legunt* τυμβοχοΐσ', *elisa diphthongo. Hanc formam semel ausus est imitari Euripides Hec.* 970. ἀλλά τίς χρεία σ' ἐμοῦ; *de qua ibi tacui, ut hoc loco eam memorarem. Scholiastes apte satis advocat Il.* K. 43. χρεὼ βουλῆς ἐμὲ καὶ σέ, *paullo forsan aptius advocaturus* Δ. 605. τί δέ σε χρεὼ ἐμεῖο; *Communes Graeci dixere,* δεῖ σοι τοῦδε; *primus, ut equidem arbitror, novavit Æschylus Prom.* 86. αὐτὸν γάρ σε δεῖ Προμηθέως. *Eum secuti sunt, Euripides Hec.* 1015. *Phœniss.* 484. *Hippol.* 23. *locisque ibi a Valckenærio indicatis, Ion.* 1037. *Herc. F.* 1173. *Auctor Rhesi* 840. *Comicus ignotus apud Herodianum Piersoni p.* 450. εὐεγκωρίας σε δεῖ. *Non sine specie hanc formulam reddi voluit Marklandus Iph. A.* 1137. *sed certissime restituit Musgravius Hel.* 1444. *pro* τῆς τύχης ΜΕΛΕΙ *fuit. Ceterum bene comparavit Brunckius Herc. F.* 1341. Θεοὶ δ' ὅταν τιμῶσιν, οὐδὲν δεῖ φίλων· Ἀλλ' γὰρ ὁ θεὸς ὑμᾶς ἐλᾶν, ὅταν θέλῃ.'

1038. ἦ γὰρ καθεῖλες θρῆνα, καὶ κραιπνὸς ξένος;

Mr. Wakefield, after some vehement remarks, proposes καθεῖλες τέκνα, καὶ κραιπνὸς ξένου——and adds: 'Sentisne Hecubam de duobus *facinoribus* loqui; et chorum, *verba cadentia tollentem*, de duobus *similiter interrogare.*'

To the justness of this alteration we cannot subscribe. There are two circumstances, indeed, mentioned by Hecuba,—the blindness of Polymestor, and the murder of his children. The Chorus also speaks of two: *Illum cepisti Thracem, et superior facta es hospite, Domina*;—and then, avoiding the mention of death: "*Patrasti qualia dicis?*" alluding to Hecuba's words: παῖδας οὓς κτεῖν' ἐγώ. The Chorus could not properly ask, ἦ καθεῖλες TEKNA, *Cepistine* LIBEROS, immediately after the Queen had said: FILIOS——*quos interfeci ego*; though she might readily inquire whether Hecuba had really accomplished what she had stated? The reply is, that the Chorus will see Polymestor advancing blind; and will see the bodies of the two children, whom she had killed. The word καθεῖλες cannot in any way be properly applied to the παῖδες.

1048—1050. Παῖ ἔῳ; πᾶ σὸν; πᾶ κέλσω; Τέλεπόδος βαΐσιν θηρὸς ὀρεσσέρου Τιθέμενος ἰχνὶ χεῖρα, καὶ ἴχνος.——

R. P. 1050. Καὶ ἴχνος *interpretatur glossa*, ὁμοίως τῷ ἴχνει. 'Sed *legendum videtur*, καὶ κατ' ἴχνος, *ut* ἴχνος *simpliciter pro* pede *capiatur. Bacch.* 1122.——*Catull. Nupt. Pel. et Thet.* Candida permulcens liquidis VESTIGIA *lymphis.*'

G. W. in the first place, says: '*Mihi videtur*—Ver. 1050 ὁλοκληρος *et sanissimus, ad glossæ datæ mentem: Incedens ope manûs, quasi* pes *foret*:'—but, in the second, he informs us that *nec tamen F. Jacobs malè intellexit*:' who states that in this passage, "*Non agitur de vestigiis* Polymestoris, *sed Trojanarum, quas insequebatur.*" Animadv. in Euripid. p. 8.—and thirdly, if Mr. Porson's

Porson's interpretation be admitted, Mr. W. offers a correction:

"ἐπι χερα ΚΑ'Π' ἴχνος,"

but he does not teach us on which we ought to fix; whether on the present *sanissimus* state of the line 1050 as explained by the Gloss; or on the *nec malè* proposed explanation of Mr. Jacobs; or on his own alteration.—It is, indeed, *plenum opus aleâ* to attempt to correct the Monostrophic Odes, as they are termed, in the Tragedies. The Verse, as it stands, is irregular enough: but till its metre be settled on some sure ground, who can determine which is the genuine reading?

Stanley, in his note on the Eumenides of Eschylus, 37. thus interprets it: "ἐπὶ χεῖρα καὶ ἴχνος. *Manui incumbens e vestigio: hoc est, vestigans manibus, quò iturus sim, et pedibus manuum vestigia sequens. Ni potius, καὶ ἴχνος accipiendum pro ἐν τῇ πορείᾳ.*" Stanley here, however, hesitates about the signification of καὶ ἴχνος.—Reiske reads ἐπ' χειρὶ, and joins καὶ ἴχνος (*id est*, he says, καλὰ βάσιν) with θηρὸς τετραπόδος ὀρεσίτου—*super manu*, seu ope manus, ad eum *modum quo graditur bestia quadrupes*.—Heath proposes a different mode,—as does Musgrave. Mr. Porson would add a long syllable καὶ to the verse; and Mr. Wakefield would change the short καὶ', into the long ΚΑ'Π'.——We are not satisfied.*

1048. Πᾶ βω; πᾶ σίῶ;

Mr. Wakefield changes πᾶ σίῶ; into ποῦ σίᾶς; in this verse, and in 1070, and in Alcest. 876.—in which place, however, he has himself published πῃ σίω;

Ποῦ; *Ubi? Where?* and Πῆ; *Quo? Whither?* ought never to be confounded, as Phrynichus has remarked: Πᾶ ἄπει, συνιάσσεται ὄνίω διὰ τοῦ Ι, ποῦ δὲ ἄπει, διὰ τοῦ Υ, ἀμάρτημα. Ἔι δὲ ἐν τῷ Υ. Ποῦ διαιρίσεις; p. 14. Ed. Pauw.

Mœris, indeed, says, p. 317. Ποῖ, Ἀττικῶς. Ποῦ, κοινῶς, which seems to refer to the later Greek writers; and examples may be found in the New Testament. In the *Ajax* of Sophocles, 1237: Πῶν βάντος, ἢ ποῦ σταντος, ὅστις οὐκ ἐγώ, is the usual reading: but, ποῖ βάντος, ἢ ποῦ σταντος——is the lection in Brunck's *Codex*.

H. Stephens, indeed, in his Lexicon, defends the text, as it appears in his own edition, which he had published a few years previously: Ποῦ *significat interdum motum ad locum, sicut*

* In Euripides we find ἴχνος ποδὸς frequently; and ἴχνος alone, in the sense of πούς;—Mr. Porson's citation from Catullus brought to our mind a passage in Apuleius, Apol. p. 410. *Ed. Delph.*—*Feris et pecudibus os humile, et deorsum ad pedes dejectum, vestigio et pabulo proximum.*

et

et ὅυ ut in hoc Sophoclis versu, ubi et in præcedenti significatione [*scil. interrogativa*] *capitur*, Ποῦ βάντος, ἢ ποῦ στὰντος——— Vol. II. 1507. E.

In the *Hippolytus*, 890. Πᾶ φύγω βάρος κακῶν, is in Musgrave's text, though Aldus gives πῦν φύγω—as does the capital letter *Princeps*.—Πᾶ is derived from Valckenaer, who says: "*Pro vulgata vocula* Πῦν, *Ubi, illinc* [ex Cod. Paris.] *recepi* Πᾶ φύγω; quo fugiam: *non nescio quam multa possint Grammaticorum observatis obmoveri; et sane nolim ista talia nisi Codicum auctoritate mutari.*" An example must be added from the Phœn. 635.

Ποῦ πόλις στήσει πρὸ πύργων;———

as it may appear to defend Mr. Wakefield's alteration: but Πῇ does not always signify *motion*. Ἡ means, *qua ratione, quo pacto, quo modo:* Πῇ; is the interrogative, and means *qua ratione? quo pacto? quo modo?*—"*Item*, (to use the words of H. Stephens, II. 1510.) *qua, necnon quo, ut* πῆ. Pythag. πῇ παρίσθι; τί δ' ἔρξω;—Odyss. O. [508.] Πῇ γὰρ ἐγὼ—ἴω; EURIPIDES *Hecuba* [1048] Πᾶ ἔω; πᾷ στῶ; (DORICE πᾷ *usurpans pro* Πῇ) *ubi posterius* πᾷ *accipi etiam queat pro* πῦν, *Ubi; sicut in simili loco Sophoclis, citato in* πῦν, *prius* ποῦ *accipitur pro Quo, posterius pro Ubi.*"

Though πῇ is nearly allied in signification, both to πῆι and πῦν, it does not follow, as was observed, that πῆι and πῦν may be written indiscriminately. On the contrary, we would have published the passage of the Ajax, from Brunck's MS.; πῆι βάντος; ἢ ποῦ στάντος——as in the Philoctetes, 833. 4. we find:

Πῦν στάσει, πῆι δὲ βάσει.

Let the Etymologist* speak: Πῆ, ἐπίῤῥημα ἐρωτήσεως, ἀντὶ τοῦ ποῦ; ἴσθι καὶ ἀόριστον· οἷς δὲ ἐστὶν ἐρωτηματικὸν, περισπᾶται. Διαφέρει δὲ τοῦ ποῦ, ὅτι τὸ μὲν πῆ, τὴν εἰς τόπον σχέσιν σημαίνει, ὡς Ὅμηρός φησιν [Z. 377.] Πῆ ἔβη Ἀνδρομάχη;—τὸ δὲ ποῦ, τὴν ἐν τόπῳ [Hom. Il. K. 406.]—Πῦ δ' ἔυρο κιὼν λίπες Ἕλλορα;——Ὅθεν οὐ δεῖ λέγειν· ποῦ ἀπέρχῃ, ἀλλὰ πῆ. Ammonius's account, p. 112. is nearly to the same purpose, and they may perhaps assist each other: he concludes, after having produced the same two examples from Homer: ὡσθ' ἁμαρτάνουσιν οἱ λέγοντες· Ποῦ ἀπέρχῃ; δέον εἰπεῖν, Πῆ ἀπέρχῃ; Valckenaer's note shall be transcribed: "*De Veterum in minutis hisce vocabulis secernendis usu ex libris judicari non potest, in quibus promiscuum obtinere, nemini non constat.—Quæ in ultima hujus literæ nota traduntur, peregregia sunt.*"

Thomas Magister also: τὸ μὲν γὰρ [πῆι] ἐπὶ κινήσεως, ὡς τὸ· Πῆι ἔβη Ἀνδρομάχη; [*ubi in principe Florentina et in aliis Edd.*

* He seems to have copied two different Grammarians.

Πῆ]—καὶ τὸ πῆ δὲ διὰ τοῦ ή, ἐπὶ κινήσεως, ὡς τὸ πᾶ βῶ, παρ' Εὐριπίδῃ ἐν Ἑκάβῃ. Τὸ δὲ ποῦ, ἐπὶ στάσεως——Thus they speak of πῆ and πῇ as relative to motion; and so Polymestor in the Hecuba says:

1066. Ποῦ, πᾶ φέρομαι——

and the same remark may be found in Eustathius, in Iliad K. 1664. 6 Ed. Rom. 405. 25 Basil. but the observation of the Etymologist, that πῇ, *adverbium Interrogationis*, is used ἀντὶ τοῦ ποῦ, as well as indefinitely; though it differs from πῆ, in as much as πῆ never signifies τὴν εἰς τόπον, but τὴν ἐν τόπῳ σχέσιν; is confirmed by the Scholiast on the passages just cited from the Hecuba [V. 1075. *Ed. Musgr.*] Πῆ ἀντὶ τοῦ ποῦ, ὅτι μὲν ἐπὶ κινήσεως λαμβάνεται, διὰ τοῦ ΟΙ διφθόγγου γράφεται· ὅτε δὲ ἐπὶ στάσεως, διὰ τοῦ Η. καὶ δῆλον ἀπὸ τοῦ· ΠΑ ΣΤΩ; Εὑρηται δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ κινήσεως καὶ διὰ τοῦ Η. καὶ δῆλον ἐκ τοῦ· Πᾶ βῶ; καὶ πᾶ κέλσω.

The same opinion of πῆ and πῆ and their representative πῇ is delivered by the Scholiast on Aristophanes, who has also cited the very verse from the Hecuba to which Mr. Wakefield objects, as it stands in Mr. Porson's and in the other editions. His remark shall conclude the defence of the old reading, πᾶ στῶ; here, and in 1070, and in Alcest. 876.

Aristophanes, *Plut.* 447—Ποι φευξούμεθα. Scholiast. Τὸ ποῖ ἐνταῦθα οὐκ ἔστιν ἐρωτηματικὸν, ἀλλ' ἀόριστον. Ἐπὶ μὲν γὰρ κινήσεως μόνον τὸ πῆ, διὰ τοῦ Ο καὶ Ι διφθόγγου γράφεται. Διὰ δὲ τοῦ Η γραφόμενον καὶ ἐπὶ στάσεως καὶ κινήσεως τίθεται· Καὶ δῆλον ἐκ τοῦ· Πᾶ βῶ; πᾶ στῶ; παρ' Εὐριπίδῃ. Εἰ δὲ που καὶ διὰ διφθόγγου εὕρηται ἐπὶ στάσεως, κατὰ παράχρησίν ἐστιν.

1168—1172. Mr. W. discovers, from the manner in which these verses are published by Mr. Porson, that he could not have penetrated into the author's meaning: the same assertion may be applied safely, Mr. W. also imagines, to Brunck and Ammon; who, however, he says, have managed the punctuation more skilfully. If they had understood the passage, they would scarcely have denied a right interpretation to their readers.

As to the want of an interpretation, this omission cannot attach the slightest blame to Mr. Porson or his Edition; for he openly declares in his Preface, p. xvii.—"*Interpretandi et illustrandi labore, utilissimo sane, supersedendum duxi, partim ne libellus in librum excresceret.*" Why Mr. W. should urge this deficiency of explanation, as a proof that Brunck did not understand the passage, is also beyond our apprehension; for he never professes, as far as we recollect, to undertake the duties of an interpreter.—As for Ammon, it is of little consequence what part he assumes, or what is expected from his labours.

To proceed: Mr. Wakefield's censures arise, *first*, from Mr. Porson's not having ended V. 1168 with "ειρηκε κακως" as it stands in Aldus and Stobæus: for, observes Mr. W. '*Ad ingenium redit hic quoque V. D. offam putidam, N finalem dico, lectoribus ingerens:*'—*secondly*, from Mr. Porson's having taken in V. 1169. ἢ νῦν λέγει τις, ἢ παλιν μέλλει λεξειν, with a comma after it, from Stobæus, instead of altering the Aldine, λέγων ἰσθι τις ἢ μέλλει into "ΛΕΓΩΝ ΕΣΤ', η παλιν μελλει λεγειν." with a full stop, as Mr. W. would give it;—and *thirdly*, for not having φρασω. with a full point after it, instead of φρασω·

In the first place, ειρηκε κακως either gives a *Trochæus* in the fifth place, or a *Dactylus* in the fifth, and a long syllable in the sixth.

In the second, λέγει τις is far preferable to λεγων ισθ', as it is more suited to the language of Tragedy, and as it forms a part of Stobæus's lection, from which Mr. W. himself is obliged to take παλιν·

In the third, a full stop is more than the sense of the passage can admit after φρασω.

1172.—— Ὁ δ' ἀιεὶ ξυνιυχων —— ALDUS.

R. P. 'Αεὶ Stobæus. *Recte hujus vocis penultimam communem esse statuit Piersonus ad Mœrin*, p. 231.'

Mr. Porson had observed before in his Preface, p. iv. '*'Αεὶ, Piersono jubente, Brunckio non nolente, semper sine diphthongo scripsi; idem facturus in* αἰεὶ ς, κλάω, *et* κἀω.'

On Mr. P.'s note, these sentiments are delivered by Mr. W.

'Αει——*Certe, illa vox syllabam* penultimam *habere nequit: hoc autem humanitus admissum egregio viro condonemus; uti nos multa similia habemus condonanda, atque condonari cupimus: at Piersono tamen, vel alii cuilibet, ita statuenti, credat, qui volet:*—— εγω δε τις ειμι τυχην ειπω. *Longe similius vero videtur existimare, quoties priorem syllabam porrigerent Attices scripsisse* αει *vel* αει· *quum corriperent rursus,* αει *posuisse. Sed libera sint hominum judicia.*'

As to the word *penultima*, its supposed impropriety, in a great measure, rests with Pierson, to whom Mr. Porson refers: but we must beg leave to observe that neither the writers in the Attic, nor in any other dialect, could possibly have written αει, (that is, a word formed of *alpha* with an *iota* subscribed, *epsilon*, and *iota*,) instead of ἀιεὶ: *for an iota can only be placed under a long vowel;* and it is sufficiently clear that this *alpha* is not long invariably. This is the quantity, however, of the *alpha* in κλάω, αἰεὶς; and in such other vocables as lose the ῖῶτα 'Αττικῶς, and have it subscribed, Ἑλληνικῶς.

It has long been our opinion that the antient Attics *always* wrote AEI. We owe it to Dorville and Pierson, and observe with pleasure its confirmation by the note of Mr. Porson.

The

The uniformity with which ἀεὶ was printed in the Glasgow edition of *Æschylus* did not escape our notice; and to those who may have any doubts on this subject, we beg leave to recommend a careful perusal of the Great Etymologist's account of ποιῶ, with Dorville's note on Chariton, p. 288. and Pierson on Mœris, 231.

1260. Θανοῦσα δ' ἡ ζῶσ' ἐνθαδ' ἐκπλήσω βίον; a verse, in which Brunck and Ammonius change βίον into μέρος, which, as Mr. P. justly observes, signifies *mors*, in the Tragedies; and Musgrave proposes πότμον, which our new Editor approves, as the same *varietas lectionis* is found in Sophocles, Antig. 83.

Mr. W. defends the old reading, and gives an explanation; and he adds some words from the Scholiast, of which he says: '*Quæ* SELEXI, [meaning *selegi*;] for these *Scholia*, I think, are the works of different Grammarians, in different ages.'

Πλῆμον undoubtedly renders the verse intelligible. As it stands, our comprehension cannot reach it; nor in our opinion, can Mr. Wakefield's interpretation be allowed. As for his selection from the note of the Scholiast, such an abridgment is completely unjustifiable.

With this remark concludes the *Diatribe* on Mr. Porson's *Hecuba*. We have attempted to examine every single criticism, separately and distinctly; and it has been our wish to perform this duty with firmness, but without asperity. How far this desire has been accomplished must be left to the decision of our readers.

* * * *

Since these observations were written, as we accidentally were turning over a copy of Mr. Wakefield's *Diatribe* belonging to a friend, we observed that some pages had been cancelled. To prevent misrepresentation, we shall lay the alterations before our readers:

P. 16. In the note on the word ἐξέπλαξας in V. 181 of the *Hecuba*, which has been quoted, this concluding passage is wholly changed: '*Nimirum vel capiendum est* pro ἐξεπλαξας, *a* πταω πτημι, *volo; vel scribendum* ἐξεπλοασας, *a* πλοῶ, *terreo. Utrum mavis accipe.*' Instead of these explanations, or whatever they are to be called, we found this question: '*Nam vox*, quiescentis *statum significans, unde possit describere* moventem?'

As we made no remarks on the old paragraph, we shall now leave the new one to the unbiassed observation of the reader.

In p. 24. we stated that an alteration with a pen had been made, in order to remove the *Spondeus* in *quarta sede* in V. 508. The leaf has been changed, and the whole line is thus published:

Σ' Αγαμεμνονος πεμψαντος, ω γυναι, μελα.

and this conclusion of the note is left out: '*Quis enim σιγματισμον in Euripide saltem damnet?*'

In the note on V. 565. p. 25. the name of Captain Cook is changed into that of Wallis, Mr. Wakefield having mentioned the former by mistake.

Page 37 has also been cancelled. In line 25 we find, quæ *selegi*, instead of quæ *selexi*, as it stands in our copy; and in the following page, 38, *inter eruditos—non—obtrectatores, sed laborum ——— socii participesque ———* is rightly corrected into *inter ——— socios ———*; as in p. 39. l. 21. we observe *ad hoc autem inhumanitatis scopulum* altered properly into *ad hunc ——— scopulum*.

There may be other alterations, but these are all which we observed.

In another Article we hope to conclude. Critical investigations, if intended to examine any questions *thoroughly*, do not readily admit curtailment. From the nature of Mr. Wakefield's pamphlet on the New *Hecuba*, it was impossible to satisfy our readers, or ourselves, with mere assertive contradictions. It was necessary to search deeply into every remark, in order to prove the solid and unshaken excellencies of Mr. Porson's edition of Euripides.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIII. *An Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra.* Vol. II. By Thomas Manning. 8vo. pp. 218. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1798.

THE first part of this work was noticed in our Review for February 1797.—The contents of the present volume are, Proportion of variable Quantities, Rule of Three, Reduction, Arithmetical and Geometrical Series, Incommensurables, Application of Algebra to Rectilinear Geometry, Surds, Greatest Common Measure of Algebraic Expressions, Properties of Numbers, Logarithms.

The chapter on Incommensurables is drawn up with much neatness and perspicuity *; and, in a scholium, the author sums up forcibly, and with precision, the arguments diffused over the two lectures of Dr. Barrow, in which that great Geometrician defends Euclid's definition of Proportionality. We give a short extract:

* The 95th article, however, appears to us imperfect in its enunciation and proof; for q must be the *same* multiple of b that p is of a.

'Various

'Various objections have been urged by different writers against Euclid's definition of proportionality. Some have censured it as obscure and difficult to be understood; but that fault, if it exists at all, is in the subtil nature of incommensurable magnitudes, and not in Euclid's definition. Others have complained that they cannot, without a demonstration, discern whether quantities, that agree with the definition, are proportional or not; as if proportionality was something independent of definition. Others again, defining numbers to be proportional, when the quotient of the first divided by the second is equal to the quotient of the third divided by the fourth, have endeavoured to obviate the necessity for Euclid's, by extending this their definition to all magnitudes whatsoever; thereby endeavouring to confound the distinct natures of commensurable and incommensurable quantities; for what is the import of the expression, $\frac{A}{B}$, when A and B are incommensurable with each other? A logical answer to this question would distinguish again what they thus endeavour to confound and blend together, and would satisfy the enquirer, that if he would have an accurate knowledge of the real nature of magnitudes; he must take the trouble of examining into the doctrine of Incommensurables, and at the same time shew him, that in point of conciseness nothing is gained by thus endeavouring to elude Euclid's distinctions, and in point of perspicuity much lost; the enquiry being of that nicety and subtilty, which cannot be easily dispatched in few words.'

The chapter on the Application of Algebra to Rectilinear Geometry is a valuable one: but we wish that the author had expressed differently the addition, subtraction, &c. of ratios. We are, indeed, previously informed what the symbols denote: but the ideas annexed to them, in their common signification, so frequently recur and intervene, that the mental progress is considerably impeded.

The explanation of logarithms is intelligible and satisfactory.—The logarithmic series is demonstrated by a process purely algebraical. If $1+a$ be the base of the system, then y is the logarithm of the number $\overline{1+a}\,|^{y}$.

If $\overline{1+a}\,|^{y}$ be assumed $= 1 + by + cy^2 + dy^3$ &c. then b may easily be shewn equal to $a - \frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^3}{3}$ — &c. and by a very ingenious method (for which the author acknowleges himself in some degree indebted to a work of M. de la Grange *,

* Books from France, however unconnected with politics and religion, make their way into this country with so much difficulty, that it was not till very lately that we could procure this work, although printed in 1797. We hope, however, to notice it in our next Appendix: which will be published at the same time with our Review for May.

Théorie des Fonctions Analytiques) the law of the dependence of $c, d,$ &c. on b is strictly determined; whereas Mr. Bonnycastle is obliged to prove by actual involution that $2c$, $2 \times 3.d$, $2 \times 3 \times 4.e$ &c. are the square, cube, biquadrate, &c. of the quantity $a - \frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^3}{3}$ — &c. *

The Appendix contains observations on Impossible Quantities, and on the use of the negative sign. Of the first volume, we have already expressed our favourable opinion; and the second is not less entitled to commendation. The whole work is valuable for the evidence of its principles, the precision of its language, and the rigour of its proofs.

Art. XIV. *Flora Londinensis.* By William Curtis. Folio. Vol. II. 4l. 10s. in Sheets, plain; coloured 9l. White.

At length this great and scientific work is closed: not from the subject being exhausted;—very far from it:—but from the ill state of the author's health. Mr. Curtis has, with much difficulty, conducted it to the end of the sixth fasciculus, which concludes the second volume: but there is no striving against debilitated nerves, and a shattered constitution. It can proceed no farther!—The Botanist will naturally lament on receiving this intelligence, and in vain he will endeavour to repair the loss which the science must sustain.

We gave a very ample account of the first volume of this splendid and valuable publication in our *seventieth* vol. p. 1.—On a review of that article, there seems to be nothing which we could wish unsaid. The work has to boast of unrivalled excellence, undiminished splendor, unabated accuracy, and is still patronised by the learned and the munificent. There is scarcely a name of any consequence in the botanical world, which is not recorded as a contributor, or a friend, to the richness of the observations contained in it. The specimens, from which the figures are drawn, are uniformly well chosen, and remarkable for their characteristic significance; the colours are vivid and expressive; and the dissections of the flowers are uncommonly well executed, and will prove more didactic than the very lectures of any but superior teachers.

To carry science to perfection, the life of man should be doubly lengthened.—The ordinary allotment of time enables an individual to form a general outline of much, but to work

* See his method for determining Logarithmic Series, in Addenda to Hutton's Dictionary, or in Monthly Review for April 1798, page 379.

out

out the detail (so that others may profit from it) of a very little. Then again the different wants, not to say the different employments and pursuits, of a man, are perpetually clashing, and thwarting each other; so that the very little which he could do is oftentimes made less, and not unfrequently rendered wholly abortive. This, however, is an evil inseparable from the nature and condition of Man; and we are not to repine at our lot. Doubtless, Providence ordered it thus for general wise and beneficial purposes. No labour of man, howsoever conducted, is incapable of making those who come afterward either wiser or better.

Adverting to the clashing of different pursuits, many have regretted that Mr. Curtis should have undertaken two such works as the *Flora Londinensis* and the Botanical Magazine; arguing that, had he confined himself to the *Fl. Lond.*, we should have had a more ample storehouse of botanical treasure. Undoubtedly we might: but, at the same time, there is much impropriety in this remark. The public had no right to call on him thus to confine himself; and, if it be duly investigated, self-interest will be found to have suggested the idea of this complaint: for it must have been raised by hopes of self-advantage from his confined labours, and self-improvement. It must be obvious to every person of common understanding, that the *Flora* was conducted on too expensive a plan to have been very lucrative to the author: but it is "*Diva pecunia*" which must of necessity regulate many of the actions of mankind.

The much-esteemed Botanical Magazine is simple in its plan, easy of execution, accommodated to the MANY, and making its way by its neatness and its cheapness, where more costly works would never have been known. Perhaps the cause of Botany, therefore, through the execution of this work, and the example which it gave to its spirited, rapid, and charming follower, ENGLISH BOTANY, has been more effectually promoted, than by any other publication during this century. The very support of the *Fl. Lond.* was centered to a certain degree in the success of the *Magazine*, so that the public was a gainer, not a loser, on the whole; and, all the while, the slow progress of the *Flora* enabled the author to give to it that consummate perfection, which nothing but very deliberate progress could accomplish. The flow of emolument from the Botanical Magazine enabled the author to be so deliberate, so accurate, and in consequence so peculiarly instructive, in his *Flora Londinensis*.

In appreciating the merit of the *Flora*, we should not overlook the general foundation which it has laid for the exten-

sion of botanical knowlege and botanical improvement, to the end of time. Let systems vary as they may, the descriptions of the *Fl. Lond.* must be of prime utility to every one of them. All the parts of the plant are so well described, the characteristic difference of every species is so expressed in every figure, and the minuter parts are so displayed in numerous and magnified dissections, that no system can be invented which will not be aided by them; and no lapse of time can occur, when such truth of nature will not be equally valuable.

We lament that Mr. Curtis was led, by bad counsel, to discontinue figuring the Mosses and Lichens, on the idea that Dillenius had anticipated all labours in that department.—Experience teaches us otherwise, and that his figures are too small to supersede the necessity of farther illustration. Close affinities are not easily distinguishable by the Dillenian method of figuring them. In Mr. C.'s work, there is such a bold representation, that the minutest part appears tractable and tangible:—no publication, except the costly work but impracticable system of Hedwig, can be said to exceed this, in conveying just notions of the construction of this wonderful tribe of vegetables.

The *Flora Londinensis* will ever remain a monument of the author's taste and singular abilities. Compared with the works of the veteran, Jacquin, we may say, "*Vitulâ tu dignus & hic.*"—Compared with the *Flora Danica*, we may ask, not without due regret, "Why was not the FLORA LONDINENSIS also honoured with Royal Patronage?"

ART. XV. *A Treatise on Mortal Diseases;* containing a particular View of the different Ways in which they lead to Death, and the best Means of preventing them, by Medical Treatment, from proving fatal. Translated from the Latin, by the Author, Conrad George Ontyd, M. D. 8vo. pp. 643. 9s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

THIS volume exhibits the principal facts relating to the causes of death, compiled from various sources, and arranged under different heads. The author forms them into the seven following classes;

1. Death from old age.
2. —— —— passions of the mind.
3. —— either from the abundance or want of caloric.
4. —— from the electric shock.
5. —— —— different kinds of gas, noxious to the animal œconomy.
6. —— —— Poisons.
7. —— —— Universal diseases.

Dr.

Dr. Ontyd has exerted a very laudable degree of industry, in reducing to their several classes the great variety of facts which his plan comprehends. Of such a work, accuracy and fidelity must form the principal merit, and we think that he is fairly entitled to the praise resulting from them; yet, from the extensive nature of the undertaking, some parts are necessarily compressed into too small a compass. The history of fever, for example, is contained in a few pages. The enumeration of symptoms and remedies appears to us too indiscriminate and unsatisfactory; and the author sometimes recommends, without qualification, remedies which may be commonly used in Germany, but which are by no means generally employed in this country.

In the most dangerous stages of typhus, for example, he directs the *leopard's bane* to be used; a medicine which has not yet acquired the confidence of practitioners in this island.

Dr. O. has proposed to inoculate for the plague, with the view of rendering it milder. This proposal he would probably have suppressed, if he had recollected that the same person may undergo the plague repeatedly, and that inoculation can be advantageous only in diseases which are capable of affecting the system but once.

In treating of the Dysentery, (p. 224,) the author defines it to be a *catarrhal affection* of the intestines. This opinion, which, to many of our readers, would require the aid of another definition, he explains afterward, by observing that, in the dissection of several dysenteric patients, he had found inflammatory affections of the small intestines; which he therefore concludes to be the seat of this disease, in opposition to the doctrine of Sir John Pringle, and other eminent physicians.

In the management of this complaint, Dr. Ontyd begins with exhibiting an emetic; he afterward gives calomel, in doses from five to twelve grains; and then he throws in opium. He deems calomel preferable to the neutral salts, as a purgative in this disease; and he seems to impute a peculiar anti-dysenteric quality to it. We think that the Doctor's objections to the use of neutral salts are not well-founded. We have frequently seen nearly as much relief produced immediately by a dose of Glauber's salt, in cases of dysentery, as can be obtained from a full dose of opium in any instance of spasmodic pain.

In prosecuting the cure by means of opium, the Doctor advises the use of very large doses; and undoubtedly where a medicine like opium is indicated, the measure of the dose must be the quantity of effect produced. Much caution, however, is necessary, in increasing it beyond the usual limits.

On the subject of Caries, Dr. Ontyd mentions a practice which is not known, we believe, in this country. He informs us that the first account of the efficacy of asafœtida, in caries of the bones, was given by Mr. Schmucker, surgeon-general to the army of the late king of Prussia; in whose work several cases of this disease are mentioned, which resisted all other remedies, but gave way to the use of asafœtida. On this authority, Dr. Ontyd gave this remedy to a girl, ten years of age, who laboured under a caries of the lower part of the thigh-bone, communicating with the knee-joint. The disorder was of two years' standing, when he saw her; and many medicines had been tried, without success. She took the asafœtida, to the quantity of a drachm a-day for some weeks; with such effect, that several pieces of bone came away, the ulcer closed up, and the girl did perfectly well, though the motion of the knee-joint was in a great measure lost. He adds that he is much inclined to believe that asafœtida is nearly as good a specific in caries and necrosis, as the bark in agues, or mercury in syphilis. It would require a very considerable degree of experience to confirm this opinion. In the case mentioned by Dr. Ontyd, it is possible that the use of the medicine might be begun about the time when the exfoliation of the bone was taking place, by the powers of the system alone. Observations, in which all essential circumstances are not well distinguished, tend more to mislead than to instruct; and we remark, in the writings of many German physicians, a disposition to prefer trifling remedies, on account of novelty in their application, to some of the most effectual and important substances of the Materia Medica. We feel the more diffidence respecting the alledged efficacy of Dr. O.'s remedy, because he decries the practice of perforating the bone, in caries and necrosis, which is an established method among the most intelligent surgeons in this country.

As an external application, in caries, our author recommends lime-water.

In the remaining part of the volume, Dr. O. seems to lose sight of the proper subject of his work, in his zeal to combat the chemical pathology lately introduced by Dr. Trotter and Dr. Beddoes. He enters, at large, into the question of the origin of Scurvy, and notices very briefly the modes of its fatal termination. We shall extract the general view of the different ways in which he supposes life to be destroyed, from the conclusion of the book:

'All the differences of death, on account of the analogy which exists between them, may be reduced to a few classes; so that I have ranked the morbid stimuli operating by extinguishing the vital principle

principle in seven, and those which prove mortal either by impeding or destroying the function of one or two vital organs in five. The differences of dying belonging to every class may likewise be easily accounted for; because they do not exceed a certain and determinate number, as will appear on taking a general view of each of them.

'In *the first class*, where death is the consequence of the mechanism of the body, man dies by the too great rigidity of the solids, and by their insensibility to stimuli. Such a state of the system, with the manner of dying dependant on it, is brought on the solids merely by life itself, without the least morbid cause, and is therefore distinguished from all the other classes, which destroy life by the operation of a morbid stimulus.

'In *the second class*, in which death follows the too violent passions of the mind, the patients are destroyed either by an apoplexy, syncope, or suffocation. All these differences of dying therefore agree in this, that an accumulation of the blood takes place in some vital organ, which, overwhelmed by the too great quantity of blood, ceases to act. Though thus various organs are affected, according to the various passions, and the different constitutions of the persons attacked, nevertheless the patients are always carried off in this class by the impeded function of some vital organ, arising from the congestion of the blood.

'In *the third class*, where death is occasioned either by the excess, or want of *caloric*; if the patients be carried off by too great cold, the blood is always driven to the internal organs, and life is extinguished in the same manner as in the foregoing class. The same seems to happen, where the patients die from superabundant heat. It is indeed true, that hitherto nothing certain is proved as to the immediate cause of death in this case; yet if we consider the phenomena accompanying too great heat, it will appear, that, if not always, at least in most cases, life is destroyed either by apoplexy or suffocation.

'In *the fourth class*, where death is produced by too great electricity, the life of all the organs is abolished, as it were, at a single shock, by the violence of the stimulus, so that the patients are immediately found insensible even to the most powerful stimuli. Thus they die by a sudden extinction of the vital principle.

'In *the fifth class*, where death happens from some *gas* noxious to the animal economy, though the symptoms greatly differ, according to the various species of gas, the patients always die from suffocation.

'In *the sixth class*, where death is produced by poisons, though at the first view nature does not appear to pursue a certain order as to the manner of dying, and though, besides, the true manner in which many poisons kill has hitherto not been properly investigated, nevertheless, upon a more accurate consideration, it seems, that the different ways of dying by poisons are also not numerous; but that nature, even in this class, follows constant laws, and, indeed, by all that I have above said of the poisons, the patients in this class seem to die only in four ways; for all poisons operate either by abolishing the vital principle by the violence of their stimulus; by destroying the action of either the brain, the heart, or the lungs; by producing gangrene of the *primæ viæ*; or, lastly, by secretly and insensibly destroying

stroying life. In the last case, the organs becoming by degrees altered in their structure, and insensible to their usual stimuli, a tabes ensues, accompanied with a hectic fever, which terminates in death.

'In *the seventh class*, where death is brought on by universal diseases, disorders are enumerated, which are quite opposite to each other; and hence it must follow, that many differences of dying also appear in this class. Yet the patients are only carried off in six different manners; for they die by the extinction of the vital principle by the too great violence of the morbid stimulus; by the impeded function of either the brain, the heart, or the lungs; by a local inflammation; by the gangrene of some vital organ; by an alteration of the organical structure in the alimentary canal, by which a colliquative flux of the belly is produced, which is to be stopped by no medicines; or by the depraved action of the organs serving to the secretion of sweat, in which case the whole body is, as it were, consumed by perspiration.

'In *the eighth class*, where death succeeds to inflammation, nature is not less observant of constant laws; and the inflammation of any *viscus* whatever leads to death only in four ways; by violent convulsions; by the function of either the brain, the heart, or the lungs, being destroyed; by the violence of the inflammation, by which the vital principle is often quickly abolished, in consequence of the suppression of a vital function; or by the gangrene of some organ succeeding to its inflammation.

'In *the ninth class*, where death arises from different fluxes, all the differences of dying may be reduced to the five following: spasm, by which nature in vain endeavours to restore the disturbed equilibrium; the loss of too great a quantity of blood, by which the patients fall into a fatal syncope; the impeded function of some vital organ; sphacelus of the alimentary canal; and a peculiar degeneracy of the intestines, by which the patients are continually impelled to go to stool with extreme prostration of strength. If the last be attended with tenesmus, it is called a chronic dysentery; if not, it is named a colliquative diarrhœa.

'In *the tenth class*, where death is occasioned by cachexies, though I have brought into it many diseases, nevertheless the differences of dying do not exceed ten: for death is produced by the consumption of some organ requisite to life, or from the destruction of the tone of the whole body by the violence of the stimulus, which is the manner in which phthisis destroys; by the violence of the noxious stimulus, which weakens the solids daily more and more without the consumption of any vital organ, as is the case in the lues venerea, scrofula, rachitis, &c.; by suffocation, by which those who labour under the dropsy of the thorax, are generally carried off; by apoplexy, in which a general dropsy not unfrequently terminates; by syncope which manner of dying is particularly common to the scorbutic, on account of the torpor of their vital principle; by hemorrhage, by which the flame of life, already deadened by the disease, is totally extinguished; by a colliquative flux, which puts an end to life, by depriving the body of its remaining energy; by the sphacelus of some organ; by the violence of the morbid stimulus, by which life

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is quickly abolished, a manner of dying, though unfrequent in the diseases of this class, sometimes happening in the sphacelus; and lastly, in mortification, the absorbed ichorous matter, when not subdued by the vital powers, sometimes produces a malignant fever, which carries off the patient in different ways, according to the various circumstances.

'In *the eleventh class*, in which death is occasioned by disorders of the nervous system, the different ways of dying are not so numerous; for in the same manner as all the nervous diseases may be reduced either to spasm, or atony, so likewise the chief ways of dying in this class are only two, and life is generally abolished either by violent spasms, or by an apoplectic fit.

'In *the twelfth class*, in which death succeeds to the diseases of the secretory organs, three different ways of dying occur; namely, either the noxious stimulus, stealing on to destroy life, by slow degrees oppresses it, as is the case in polysarcia; the solids become enervated, and altered in their structure, either by the continually stimulating noxious power alone, or both by this, and the exhaustion of the blood for a secretion of a peculiar kind, in each of which cases they are destroyed by a hectic fever accompanied with its usual symptoms; or the vital principle is abolished by the impeded or destroyed function of the brain, heart, or lungs.'

On the whole, we think that Dr. Ontyd's book is a respectable production. If it should add little to the mass of knowlege, it is one of those compilations which may be perused with advantage by the student; and to those who are ignorant of the German language, it possesses the recommendation of making them acquainted with the opinions and practice of several eminent physicians of that nation, on many subjects of great importance to every class of practitioners.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1799.

EDUCATION.

Art. 16. *An Essay on the Education of Youth.* By John Evans, A. M. 12mo. 1s. Symonds.

In a short essay on so very comprehensive a subject as that of education, only a rapid glance can be expected. The present pamphlet, however, discovers its author to be qualified for superintending the education of youth, and in course must recommend him and his seminary. It is justly observed by Mr. Evans, that 'Education, in its most extensive sense, embraces every thing that is valuable in the character of man.' To the acquisition of literature and science it is generally confined: but we think that it ought to include whatever tends to perfect the animal *Man*, both in body and mind. What is called Learning, when acquired at the expence of health, is too dearly bought. Men then become the dupes of superstition; and display, together with much reading,

reading, all the effects of a debilitated nerve, owing to an inattention to corporeal vigour during the period of education. In pursuit of the *mens sana*, the *corpus sanum* should not be forgotten.—Mr. E. has mentioned a great variety of books to be read in his course of education: but to young persons, particularly, an observation of Pliny applies—"*multum legendum esse non multa.*" We have often thought that books alone should not be considered as the sources of acquirement to the rising generation. Recreation may be made subservient to science; and the knowlege of different figures, lines, and curves, and the solution of certain problems, may be taught in the play ground. An ingenious master might invent a variety of exercises which would strengthen the body, and at the same time convey useful knowlege to the mind;—knowlege which could never be forgotten.

Mr. Evans places *French* among the *ornamental* branches of education; but it is surely a language more useful to the modern than *Greek*; and both to the merchant and the scholar it is essential. He owns that of late it has risen into importance.

On the whole, it is evident that Mr. E. has it warmly at heart to train the pupils in his seminary to knowlege and virtue;—and to make them enlightened, pure, and useful members of the community.

IRELAND.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt.* 8vo. pp. 48. Moore, Dublin. 1799.

Art. 18. *A Second Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt.* 8vo. pp. 50. Folingsby, Dublin. London, Robinsons.

A few years ago, we introduced the animated writer of these letters (Dr. William Drennan *) to the notice of our readers, by the account which we gave of his Patriotic *Letter to Earl Fitzwilliam*; see M. Rev. *New Series*, vol. xvi. p. 450.

Still impelled and urged on by the same principles, and the same public spirit, (a spirit which may be regarded as characteristic of a "*true-born Irishman,*") the Doctor now zealously opposes the projected Union between the Sisters, Britannia and Hibernia; and he manifests an uncommon degree of—(we are sorry to add the word) *inveteracy*, on the occasion. He attacks the political character and conduct of Mr. Pitt in a most cavalier style, and boldly threatens to 'pursue him through the measure.' In a word, Dr. D. may be considered as the Demosthenes † of Ireland, and our Premier as the present object of his *Philippics*.—For a farther idea of the peculiar style of his bold and figurative eloquence, we may refer to our account of his abovementioned Letter to Lord Fitzwilliam.

Before we perused the whole of these two letters to Mr. Pitt, we imagined, from Dr. D.'s uncommon candour respecting the Roman Catholics of Ireland, that he was of that persuasion: but he here de-

* Physician in Dublin, we suppose.

† The *writing* Demosthenes we mean; not knowing whether or not the Doctor has been equally distinguished as a *Speaker*.

clares

clares himself 'a protestant dissenter:' need we add that he appears to be a zealous one?—In whatever cause he is embarked, we may rest assured that there will be no deficiency of *warmth* in his attachment.

Art. 19. *No Union! but Unite and Fall.* By Paddy Whack, of Dyott-Street, London. A loving Letter to his dear Mother, Sheelah, of Dame-Street, Dublin. 8vo. 6d. Dublin printed; London, Richardson, &c. 1799.

There is a kind of St. Giles's broad humour in this effort of Irish loyalty, that seems to speak this little pamphlet not ill calculated to produce some good among the poor Paddies, resident in either of the sister-islands.—Paddy Whack thus endeavours to convince his countrymen of the absurdity of expecting any benefit from a connexion with the French:

'They that wish to make us fat, by Jazus, by depriving us of our food! they that wish to make us warm, by stripping us of all our dirty duds, and all our woollen and linen shabby bits of feathers! they that wish to make us aisy, my honey, by dragging their guns, and flogging us through lough and through bog! they that wish to make us free, by being such foes to all Union, agra! as to disunite our very heads from our very bodies, for the good of our very souls! And they that wish to make us rich, my jewel, by robbing us of every living and dead thing that might sell for a single copper in Copper-alley.'

Art. 20. *A Letter addressed to a Member of the Irish Parliament*, on the Subject of the proposed Union between Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Co. 1799.

The calamities with which Ireland has been afflicted are ascribed, by the writer of this letter, to an inveterate and tyrannizing aristocracy; to a mad populace driving headlong into the fraternal embrace of French republicans; and to the exclusion of three-fourths of the people from the benefits of civil government, completely separated from it in religion, interests, manners, education, and in a great measure even by language. In asserting the necessity of an union, he says, 'The French are consolidating their force, we should condense ours: they are desirous of weakening the connexion.'—'What then remains for us to do? Let us at least learn from our enemies the important lesson of being *one and indivisible.*' The author advises us, likewise, to put a check on the aristocracy, and to turn the tide of Catholic 'opinions from its course towards republicanism, into a direction which shall strengthen the country.'—There is much good sense in this little treatise:—but we dissent from some of the author's opinions respecting the competency of Parliament, and not less from the character which he gives of Mr. Locke.

Art. 21. *Ireland profiting by Example;* or, the Question whether Scotland has Gained, or Lost, by an Union with England, fairly discussed. In a Letter from a Gentleman in Edinburgh to his Friend in Dublin. 8vo. 1s. Chapple.

The writer of this pamphlet holds out, as an encouragement for Ireland to imitate the example of Scotland, the many improvements which have taken place in the commerce, population, &c. of North

Britain, since its union with this country. Without admitting that the increased prosperity of Scotland is *wholly* to be considered as the effect of the Union, we willingly agree with the author (as we have elsewhere observed) that, since that period, the legislature of Great Britain has shewn the most liberal attention to the interests of that country.

Art. 22. *Considerations on the Competency of the Parliament of Ireland to accede to an Union with Great Britain.* By the Right Hon. Charles, Viscount Falkland. 8vo. 6d. Wright. 1799.

The noble author of this small pamphlet professes that it is not his intention to be very rigid in his examination of this question. He says, 'In the following very short view of the subject, I shall endeavour to prove, that the Parliament of Ireland has, constitutionally, the right of acceding to the proposed Union; and I must beg it to be understood that I am not entering into a discussion of the merits of the principles on which the Constitution is founded, but that I am only attempting, by arguments derived from that Constitution as it now stands, to prove that the Parliament (by which I always mean the Three Estates acting in unison) has that right vested in it.'

As doubts respecting competency did not occasion the rejection of an union, nor appear to offer much impediment, the question is of the less importance. The practice in Great Britain, in most cases that are of such magnitude as to involve any change in the constitution, has generally been that, when the proceedings of Parliament have been silently admitted by the country, such silence has been interpreted, and perhaps not unfairly, to be the public consent. When any measure affecting the Constitution is undertaken by Parliament, of which the people at large shew their disapprobation, the competency of Parliament then indeed becomes an important question.

Art. 23. *Reasons for adopting an Union between Ireland and Great Britain.* By the Author of the Letter to Jos. Spencer, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapple.

A legislative Union is considered by this writer as the only certain method of perpetuating the connection between the two countries. The advantages which Ireland would probably derive from an Union, he says, may be conjectured by the effect of the Scotch Union; on which he remarks that, contrary to the apprehensions which were entertained, the United Parliament has always been liberally attentive to the interests of Scotland. This seems the most reasonable part of his argument.—The politics in the following paragraph appear to depend too much on the principle of expediency:

'We have hitherto endeavoured to secure the connection, and promote the prosperity, of the two countries by a simple Union of the executive authorities of each, with distinct and independent legislatures. A connection more slight could scarcely be imagined; we touch politically in a single point only—between countries of equal strength and power, such an Union would not have lasted a moment; and where it has taken place between a greater and inferior country, every step that diminishes the inequality between these, lessens the probability of its continuance; this consideration will, of necessity, determine

determine the superior to preserve its relative condition inviolate. If the continuance of the connection be an object with the superior country, she will find the strength of it to depend upon maintaining her advantage.'

In examining the question respecting the competency of the Parliament of Ireland, the author decides that the prerogative of the crown, the privileges of the people, and 'the duration of Parliament itself, are subject to its control.'—'It has occasionally limited and prolonged its own existence.' According to these *data*, nothing can be more clearly demonstrated than the following position advanced by the author: 'nor can their power, *while the Constitution lasts*, even be controlled by an adverse will on the part of the people:' for, with the *right* or the *power* (we believe that the author means both) to continue itself indefinitely, a legislative assembly may be considered as perfectly independent of the will of the people.

LAW.

Art. 24. *Observations, &c. upon the Act for taxing Income*; in which the Principles and Provisions of the Act are fully considered, with a View to facilitate its Execution, both with respect to Persons chargeable, and the Officers chosen to carry it into Effect. With the Act at large. Together with the Substance of Clauses of the Assessed Tax Act that have a Reference to this, and a Copious Index, referring both to the Act and Observations. 8vo. pp. 270. 4s. 6d. Bunney and Gold.

Art. 25. *The Substance of the Income Act*, in a methodical Arrangement of all its Clauses, transposed, as nearly as possible, according to their natural Connection with each other; intended to give to general Readers, without much Labour, a clear Idea of all its Provisions. By Stewart Kyd, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 60. 1s. 6d. Hurst.

The object of each of these two publications is to explain, with clearness and precision, the intentions of a complicated and universally interesting act of parliament, and the modes to be observed by the different persons named in it.—We have consulted them both, and have felt our minds relieved from doubts and satisfied by the remarks and explanations contained in their respective pages.—The *alterations* in the Income act, recently made by Parliament, in course occasion some variations in these pamphlets.

Art. 26. *A Treatise on the Study of the Law*, containing Directions to Students, written by those celebrated Lawyers, Orators, and Statesmen, the Lords Mansfield, Ashburton, and Thurlow, in a Series of Letters to their respective Young Friends; with Notes and Additions by the Editor. 8vo. pp. 160. 3s. 6d. Harrison and Co.

This work is professedly a compilation 'from all the best writers on the same subject,' and the letters from Lord Mansfield and Lord Ashburton form the best and most useful part. On the strength of

internal evidence, we feel little difficulty in declaring our opinion that the letter imputed to Lord Thurlow was never written by him; for it is altogether unworthy of his talents and experience.

Of Lord Mansfield's letters, the first contains instructions for the study of antient history, previously to entering on the study of the law; the second is on the study of modern history, and the directions contained in it are judicious: but, in the interval between its being written and published, some books of high authority have appeared, which should have been mentioned by the editor; particularly Robertson's History of Charles V. as being applicable to what his Lordship observes on the subject of the feudal system, the History of the Reformation, and that of the Germanic Empire. The editor, however, in the true style of a commentator, has introduced notes where they were superfluous, and has omitted them where they were necessary. The third letter relates to the study of English history, in which Lord M. remarks that 'the most elegant old history we have is that by Samuel Daniel, a poet of no mean rank; though he wrote more than half a century before Milton, his style appears much more modern than that of his continuator.'—The fourth letter recommends a course of law studies. All the four appeared in the European Magazine in the years 1791 and 1792, and have since been published in Mr. Holliday's life of this highly distinguished nobleman.

The letter from Lord Ashburton furnishes directions for the study of the law, and points out a course of law reading.—This is indeed an admirable composition;—superior in *epistolary* excellence to those above mentioned, and by no means inferior in point of judgment and good-sense.

We cannot on any account assent to the severe and unjust censure here bestowed on the Commentaries of Sir William Blackstone; it is asserted that he presented the world with a *readable* system of the law, and *no more*; that we find in it no invention, no philosophy, no erudition. For the first quality there was no room in a didactic work, which would have been disgraced and disfigured by its introduction.—Let us oppose to this illiberal criticism the sentiments of a lawyer and a man of science, of taste, and of genius:—"His commentaries (said the "all accomplished" and universally lamented Sir William Jones) are the most correct and beautiful outline that ever was exhibited of any human science."

That part of the pamphlet before us, which gives an analysis of practice, shews evident marks of judgment, observation, and knowlege, and will be found useful by those who have not made any considerable advances in their legal studies.

Art. 27. *Deed of Appointment of Trustees in pursuance of the 66th Section of an Act of Parliament*, passed 38 Geo. III. Chap. 60. intitled An Act for making perpetual, subject to Redemption and Purchase in the Manner therein stated, the several Sums of Money now charged in Great Britain as a Land-Tax, for one Year from the 25th Day of March 1798, enabling and empowering any Number of Persons, whose Land-Tax shall not exceed 25*l.* each, to

to join in appointing a Trustee or Trustees (by Deed duly registered) to redeem their respective Land-Taxes; and enabling such Trustees to purchase the Whole of such respective Land-Taxes in one Contract. Settled by Charles N. Hunt, Conveyancer of Lincoln's Inn. A Sheet. 1s. Clarke. 1798.

In addition to the information conveyed by this title-page, we have only to observe that the deed is accurately drawn, and calculated to answer with safety the purposes of that section of the act to which it applies.

Art. 28. *Thoughts on the Law of Forfeiture, and Parliamentary Attainder for High Treason*, as applying to the Bill now depending in the Irish Parliament. 8vo. pp. 80. 2s. Printed at Dublin, and sold in London by Wright. 1798.

The author of this pamphlet is an advocate for the forfeiture of property, in cases of high treason, even where the offenders have not been attainted in their life-time: but he is no friend to the corruption of the blood of attainted persons.—We discover strong marks of good sense, moderation, and knowlege in his remarks; and those who may differ from him will be obliged to allow that his arguments are ingenious and forcible.

To the writer's opinion that the feudal law was introduced into this country by William the Conqueror, we cannot give our assent. We believe, and we are supported in that belief by the respectable authorities of Coke and Selden, (though we allow that Spelman is against us,) that the existence of feuds was prior to the Norman Conquest. The progress of the system was probably accelerated by that event: but, the situation of the Anglo-Saxons being similar to that of the other barbarous nations who overran the Roman Empire, it was natural to expect that their forms and principles of government should bear a great resemblance. The feudal law originated in the Saxon period, and arrived at maturity in the reign of William.

MEDICAL.

Art. 29. *A View of the Science of Life*; on the Principles established in the Elements of Medicine, of the late celebrated John Brown, M. D. with an Attempt to correct some important Errors of that Work; and Cases in Illustration, chiefly selected from the Records of their Practice, at the General Hospital at Calcutta. By William Yates and Charles Maclean. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Printed at Philadelphia; imported by Debrett, London.

If ever irony could be permitted on subjects which so directly concern life as reports of medical cases, we should have supposed that some wicked wag, determined to ridicule John Brown, and all Brunonians, had here undertaken to write an extravagant burlesque of their principles and practice; and that the names of William Yates and Charles Maclean were only *stalking horses, under the presentation of which he shoots his wit.* When we are told that 'pneumonia, acute rheumatism, and other diseases of this class,' are diseases of *indirect debility*, we can hardly suppose the authors to be serious; and we cannot help adopting their style, so far as to say that this is at least very *indirect sense*,—to avoid a grosser term:—but, when we find that these

positions lead the writers to decry the use of blood-letting, in cases of active inflammation, contempt gives place to more poignant feelings. Their recital of the case of one unfortunate victim, who fell into their hands, is sufficient to chill the blood of any thinking medical man. It was a case which the authors acknowlege, from the preceding symptoms, and from the dissection after death, to have been an instance of 'the most violent peripneumony.' Yet they not only justify their omission of bleeding the ill-fated patient, but they declaim against that remedy, in all stages of inflammatory complaints! Men who practise in this manner need not regret the want of variety of poisons, in the Materia Medica *. We may apply, with a slight alteration, the words of Horace, in an apostrophe to the oracle of these tremendous stimulators:

Non egent Mauri jaculis, neque arcu,
Nec venenatis gravida sagittis,
FUSCE, *pharetra!*

The powers of opium might have been sufficient for such unsparing hands. We find *two hundred* drops of laudanum ordered *every hour*, in one case (p. 56); and after this had been continued during ten hours, a draught with *four hundred* drops was given. A few days afterward, draughts with *five hundred drops* each were given every hour; and glysters, with *five hundred drops* each, were occasionally thrown up (p. 58).

We should be wanting in our duty, to the younger part of our readers in particular, if we did not reprobate, in the strongest manner, the mischievous practice inculcated in this publication;—and we would recommend it to the serious attention of those who have it in their power, to prevent the repetition of such wild experiments, in *any* hospital.

Art. 30. *Medical Strictures;* being a concise and effectual Method of treating the following Diseases, &c. &c. &c. By Richard Clarke, M. D. Author of Plans for increasing the Naval Force of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Richardson, &c.

An advertisement of the author's packets of medicine, which are prescribed with great brevity, as follow: "The medicines contained in the packet No. 14, *is* strongly recommended to the consumptive.' —'The medicines contained in the packet No. 9, possess the property of removing menstrual obstructions in plethoric, or full-blooded and gross habits, and those contained in No. 10, of answering the same purpose in thin, *cachectic*, and relaxed ones.'

Whatever may be the contents or the price of the Doctor's packets, we know, from sorrowful experience, that his pamphlet, price one shilling, contains nothing worth one farthing †.

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* 'The powers of arsenic and other substances called poisons, are by no means well ascertained. But we have implements enough, if we knew how to use them.' *View*, p. 145 (note).

† Dr. Clarke makes a much more respectable figure as an author, in our Review for July 1795, p. 342; where our readers will find an account of his "Plans," &c. See title.

Art.

Art. 31. *A Compendious Medical Dictionary*, containing an Explanation of Terms, &c. By R. Hooper, M. D. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1798.

A work of this nature, exhibiting a concise view of the present state of medical science, might be an acceptable present to those who are about to enter on the study of medicine: but the present performance is too brief to afford much satisfaction to the student; for it consists of little more than the mere nomenclature. This, however, appears to be all that the author intended, and he has accomplished his purpose with sufficient clearness and precision. The terms are accented, which is a considerable advantage to the learner.

Art. 32. *The Arguments in favour of Inflammatory Diathesis in Hydrophobia considered.* By Richard Pearson, M. D. Birmingham. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Seely. 1798.

In this pamphlet, Dr. R. Pearson undertakes to prove that hydrophobia is not an inflammatory disease, and that bleeding has never been successfully employed in it. He proposes to treat the patients with wine and aromatics, and to mix some of the mineral acids, or vinegar, with the wine. The tract is well written, and does credit to the author.

Art. 33. *A Treatise on Scrophulous Diseases*, shewing the good Effects of Factitious Airs, illustrated with Cases and Observations. By Charles Brown. 8vo. pp. 168. 3s. 6d. Boards. Glendinning, Hatton Garden. 1798.

Mr. Charles Brown manifests great indignation against all men who do not recommend the use of the gases in diseases; and he enumerates a variety of formidable complaints which he professes to have cured, or to have *seen cured*, by this method. We are glad to find, however, that he does not entirely lay aside some of our old acquaintance; for several of his cures have been performed by 'change of air, plenty of exercise, with *chalybeates*,—and vital air;' and the action of the gas had been assisted, in several instances, by tonic remedies which, a few years ago, were supposed to remove diseases by their own power. This gentleman is however resolved on discoveries; and he has met with such extraordinary success in his investigations, that we cannot, in common justice, withhold them from our readers. We would allow the wisest and most experienced of our medical friends to ruminate for a month, on the nature of *strumous swellings*, before we should expect them to divine Mr. Brown's solution of them. What think you, gentlemen? They are, according to him, nothing more than lumps of soap:—but he must tell his own story:

'It will be generally found that persons who have these monstrous enlargements of the thyroid glands drink much cold water, and may not this chill these glands, and bring on this disease? It is found to consist chiefly of fat; and the alkali which enters strongly into the vascular frame uniting with this fat forms soap. The absorbents being roused into action by the vital air, which is known to produce leanness, take up this saponaceous matter, and thus the disease is removed, *citò, tutò, et jucundè*.'

Bravo! this goes off as well as Foote's lecture on the jaundice, in the Devil on two Sticks: "Those two yellow drops

there were drawn from a patient afflicted with the jaundice—Those yellow flies give the tinge to the skin, and undoubtedly cause the disease. And now for the cure! I administer to every patient the two-and-fiftieth part of a scruple of the ovaria or eggs of the spider, these are thrown by the digestive powers into the secretory, there separated into the alimentory, and then precipitated into the circulatory; where finding a proper nidus, or nest, they quit their torpid state, and vivify, and upon vivification, discerning the flies, their natural food, they immediately fall foul of them, extirpate the race out of the blood, and restore the patient to health."

Let us however seriously advise Mr. B. to recollect, when he next presents himself to the public, that modesty, which is an ornament to the brightest talents and to the highest learning, is indispensable to writers who are but moderately gifted with either; and that a man who accuses a respectable part of the profession, of prejudice and ignorance, should be very careful to betray neither in his own performance.

Art. 34. *Phthisiologia*, a Poem, miscellaneously descriptive and didactical; in Four Parts. To which are prefixed certain Preliminary and Physio-medical Observations, and Admonitions. 8vo. pp. 105. 3s. 6d. Boards. Boosey. 1798.

We are here presented with the work of a votary of Apollo, whose labours, as *Vellum* says in the play, are *two-fold*; he pays his respects to

The God of Verse and Physic too;——

and as he appears to be more conversant with the healing than the versifying power of his patron, we hope that he will direct his attention, in future, to become an accurate practitioner, rather than a middling poet. We offer this advice in pure friendship to the author, who writes with a very laudable modesty; and who seems to possess talents for observation, which only require the aid of experience, to mature them for a more acceptable introduction to the Public. It is particularly necessary for those, who attempt to please in didactic poetry,—especially when they undertake medical subjects,—to recollect Horace's rule;

Non satis est pulchra esse poëmata, dulcia sunto.

What poetical gratification can be derived from attending to the progress of the cough, hectic fever, and diarrhœa, of a consumptive patient? It is really time to put a stop to the inclination for describing disagreeable subjects. Boileau valued himself on imitating the sound of a plate rolling on the floor, and the cries of a couple of cats. Possibly, some future genius may pride himself on the resemblance of his verses to the coughing and expectoration of his patients, or to the wheezing of an asthmatic fit.

We desire that we may not be understood to give an unfavourable opinion of this author's medical talents. We only wish to impress on him the superior importance of professional skill to the empty praise of tolerable poetry. It is sufficiently difficult to deliver medical precepts, in prose, with any pretensions to correctness and elegance;

gantee; and to succeed in verse requires a genius which ought to be employed on more favourable subjects.

Art. 35. *The Influence of Metallic Tractors on the Human Body*, in removing various painful inflammatory Diseases, such as Rheumatism, Pleurisy, some Gouty Affections, &c. &c. lately discovered by Dr. Perkins, of North America; and demonstrated in a Series of Experiments and Observations, by Professors Meigs, Woodward, Rogers, &c. &c. by which the Importance of the Discovery is fully ascertained, and a new Field of Enquiry opened in the modern Science of Galvanism, or Animal Electricity. By Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A.M. Son to the Discoverer. 8vo. pp. 99. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

By this copious title-page, the reader will be instructed nearly as well as by the pamphlet itself, in the claims asserted by this notable practitioner. The tract contains attestations of cures said to have been performed by Dr. Perkins's rods, from many medical men in different parts of America, which would provoke a smile on the sagest visage among the disciples of Apollo on this side of the Atlantic.

In one case, (p. 43,) a patient, who had received a great contusion, was cured *by the tractors* in two minutes:—but he had been bled *thrice* before their application.

At p. 54, however, we meet with a strong proof of the confidence placed in this remedy by several transatlantic philosophers. Dr. Willard, it seems, applied a red-hot piece of iron to a wart on his finger, and burnt himself very severely, in order that he might be relieved by the tractors; which are said to have given him ease in two successive experiments. The author adds, 'many have submitted to similar measures, in order to *experience* the effects. I once formed one of five, who burned ourselves so that blisters were raised, to make the experiment; we all obtained relief in a few minutes.'

This zeal for knowlege is truly edifying; especially as the tractors are generously presented to the public at *only* five guineas a pair; and it is clear that one pair would suffice to cure all the burns and scalds of a large parish. Why are not such luculent experiments repeated here? If Mr. P., or any admirer of the discovery, would submit to have a red-hot poker run into some part of his body not necessary to life, (into *that part where honour's lodged*, according to Butler, for example,) in any public coffee-house within the bills of mortality, and would afterward heal the wound in presence of the company, in ten minutes, or in half as many hours, by means of the tractors, the most stony-hearted infidel could not resist such a demonstration. Why trifle with internal inflammations, when such an outward and visible sign might be afforded?

Mr. Perkins has taken some pains, in the first part of his pamphlet, to shew that the operation of his rods is not derived from animal magnetism. In our opinion, this is an unnecessary piece of trouble in England, where there is a constant succession of similar pretensions. The *virgula divinatoria*, and the *baguette* of the juggler, are the genuine prototypes of this mystery. We were, indeed, rejoiced on Dr. Perkins's account, to find that the Connecticut Society had

only denounced him as a *Mesmerist*; we trembled lest he should have been put into the inquisitorial hands of the old women as a white witch.

To trace the relations and dependencies of projects similar to that of Dr. Perkins, would now be a work of more labour than utility. The fund of public credulity is an inexhaustible resource, for those who can resolve to levy contributions on it. In vain is the spirit of quackery exorcised in one form; it rises again immediately, "with twenty ghastly murders on its head, to push us from our stools." We, who have contemplated the progress of real knowlege during a long course of years, have seen many bubbles like this glitter for a moment, and then disappear for ever. People may talk of *Mesmerism*, or *Perkinism*, but we consider all such varieties as belonging to the old and extensive class of *Charlatanism*.

Art. 36. *A View of the Perkinean Electricity*, or an Enquiry into the Influence of Metallic Tractors, founded on a newly-discovered Principle in Nature, and employed as a Remedy in many painful Inflammatory Diseases, as Rheumatism, Gout, Quinsy, Pleurisy, Tumefactions, Scalds, Burns, and a Variety of other topical Complaints; with a Review of Mr. Perkins's late Pamphlet on the Subject; to which is added, An Appendix, containing a Variety of Experiments, made in London, Bath, Bristol, &c. with a View of ascertaining the Efficacy of this Practice: By Charles Cunningham Langworthy, Surgeon, Bath. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

The most material information to be gained from this pamphlet, and its title-page, which an American would style *lengthy*, is that Mr. Langworthy sells Tractors at Bath, by commission from Mr. Perkins, the original Manufacturer in London.

To what we have said on this subject in the preceding article, we shall only add that the scheme of the Tractors has at least the merit of being harmless, if it be nugatory. In this respect, its patrons are placed in a very different situation from those desperate quacks, who put unlimited doses of the most powerful medicines into the hands of their deluded followers. Even those pests of society have found means to provide themselves with evidence to the success of their compositions. They had their titles too, in days of yore. "Regulars, LINT, regulars; look at their names—Roger, bring me the news—not a soul of them but is either P. L. or M. D."

"LINT,
"Plaguy liars! Murderous dogs!" *Mayor of Garratt.*

Art. 37. *Remarks on Hydrophobia*; or the Disease produced by the Bite of a Mad Dog, or other Rabid Animal. By Robert Hamilton, M. D. Second Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

The first edition of this work was noticed in our Catalogue for July 1786. It is now greatly enlarged, and may be considered as containing the substance of every important publication, on the subject of this disease. We regret to learn, from the preface to this edition, that the author has been deprived of his sight, in consequence of a fever, and has been superseded in his situation of Physician to the

the Army, without receiving any compensation for his misfortunes by another appointment. The melancholy situation of a man of science, thus suddenly deprived of the means of usefulness and exertion, must excite the sympathy of our medical readers, and should promote the sale of a book which was much inferior to this under consideration. We feel, indeed, no hesitation in recommending this work to a place in the library of every practitioner, who wishes to be prepared with the best instructions that can be obtained, for regulating his conduct in the treatment of this deplorable complaint.

The publication itself does not admit abridgment. Dr. Hamilton seems to think that the inhalation of oxygenous gas may prove useful in hydrophobia;—any conjecture, on this subject, is certainly preferable to total despair.

Art. 38. *Some new Experiments, with Observations upon Heat, clearly shewing the erroneous Principles of the French Theory.* Also a Letter to Henry Cavendish, Esq. containing some pointed Animadversions; with Strictures upon some late Chemical Papers in the Philosophical Transactions, and other Remarks. By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. pp. 426. 3s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies.

It is not without pain that we perceive a well-meaning man entangling himself in pursuits, of which he does not comprehend the scope and the extent; and wasting, on subjects of extreme difficulty, efforts which might have procured him reputation and happiness, if they had been directed to objects more suitable to his talents. The writer before us would probably have made a respectable figure, if he had confined himself to the study of his profession: but he has unhappily judged it necessary to decry the opinions and discoveries of the first chemists of the age, and has only proved how little qualified he is for rightly understanding their publications. It would be a mere waste of time to follow him through all his benighted wanderings; and indeed it would not be easy for the most persevering critic to support so uncomfortable a journey:

> "*Quale per incertam Lunam sub luce maligna*
> *Est iter in sylvis: ubi cælum condidit umbrâ*
> *Jupiter, et rebus nox abstulit atra colorem.*"

The general assent of the most celebrated chemical philosophers, Dr. Priestley alone excepted, to the opinions of Lavoisier, precludes the necessity of our entering into any defence of them here. This assent, however, Dr. Harrington considers as the result of a combination against *his* system; and he has most bitterly denounced those British chemists, who have surrendered their old principles to the enemy. He is, indeed, completely a chemical alarmist, and declaims against the introduction of French principles into the laboratory, with all the warmth of our most zealous political writers.

The Doctor informs us, (p. 29,) that he 'has long been in the habit of using green glasses,' [spectacles, we suppose,] and that 'upon his first using them, every thing appeared very green through them; but by habit, that greenness went off, and he could distinguish colours.' We apprehend that he has long looked through some wrong medium

medium at the facts of chemistry; and we sincerely wish that his perseverance may overcome the internal, as it seems to have gotten the better of the optical, deception.

Art. 39. *A Meteorological Journal for the Year* 1798, kept in London. By William Bent. To which are added, Remarks on the State of the Air, Vegetation, &c. and Observations on the Diseases in the City and its Vicinity. 8vo. 2s. Bent.

Mr. Bent continues his accurate register of facts, which may be interesting to some inquirers. Whether an accession of similar observations will furnish any new conclusions to philosophy, we shall not venture to decide:—but we recollect that Dr. Johnson somewhere mentions a curious observer, who, after having noted the changes of the weather during forty years, discovered that it was variable. Perhaps Mr. Bent may teach us when and how it may be expected to vary.

POETRY *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 40. *Poems, Sacred and Moral.* By Thomas Gisborne, M. A. Small 8vo. pp. 118. 4s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

When a poetic writer exerts his powers to illustrate moral truths, and to recommend the genuine doctrines of religion through so pleasing a medium, we cannot look on his design but with the highest respect, nor contemplate its execution without the utmost candour. The little volume now before us contains, I. a piece entitled *Conscience*; II. *Fortitude*; both short poems; III. *Stanzas to a Church-Bell*; IV. *The Birth-Day Eve*, a Poem; V. *Ode to the Harp of Cowper*; VI. *The Dying Indian*, an Ode; VII. *The Reformation*, an Ode; VIII. Is an application of some passages from the 10th chapter of Isaiah to the present state of Europe, an Ode; IX. *Consolation*, a Lyric Poem; the purport of which is to compare Christianity with the three leading systems of antient philosophy, that of Pyrrho, that of Epicurus, and that of Zeno, as to their influence on human happiness. In the delineation of the doctrines of Epicurus, we fear that Mr. Gisborne is misled by the vulgar opinion concerning that philosopher, when he represents him as a sensualist.—The remaining contents of the volume are, *The Duellist*, an Elegy; and an *Elegy to the Memory of the Rev. William Mason.*

We select for the amusement of our readers the pretty 'Stanzas to a Church Bell':

'Sonorous Brass of changeful power,
Now whirl'd amain, now swinging slow,
Alike prepared to hail the hour
Of hope or fear, of joy or woe!

'When Sabbath-tracks to prayer invite,
Or babes acquire a Christian's name,
Or Wedlock's holy ties unite,
Thy notes the festival proclaim.

'And when unbodied spirits fly,
Thy knell reveals the parting breath;
And when the lifted bier draws nigh,
Conducts it to the vault of death.

'When

'When rebecks greet the jocund wake,
Or May-day wreaths perfume the plain;
The labouring spire thy carols shake,
And rouse to mirth the village train.

'When gleamy fires the corn-stack climb,
Or flames the sinking roof invade;
In quick alarm thy backward chime
On distant hamlets calls for aid.

'When Jervis lops the flying host;
When Howe or Duncan shouts "Destroy!"
Thy clanging peals from coast to coast
Explosive bear a people's joy.

'And when to Henry's hallow'd ground *
In sable pomp shall George be borne;
Thy muffled strokes in broken sound
Shall tell how boding nations mourn.

'Emblem of man's uncertain tongue,
That owns each varying passion's sway;
From hope to fear, from plaint to song,
Transferr'd within one little day!

'Sonorous Brass, let grief or joy,
Let sober truth or wild pretence,
Or hope or fear thy tones employ,
Alike in thee 'tis innocence.

'Not so, when man's uncertain voice
Conspires to aid the foul intent,
Pursues unawed its headstrong choice,
By malice urged, on vengeance bent;

'With rage o'erwhelms, with guile betrays,
The living wounds, defames the dead,
Love with envenom'd scorn repays,
With curses loads a brother's head;

'The Power, whose nod is fate, defies,
Disdains his mercy, braves his ire,
Scoffs the bright mansions of the skies,
And Hell's blue lakes of endless fire.

'O when the dead of every age,
For judgement ranged in order due,
In Accusation's open page
Each idle word recorded view †;

'What crowds shall wish their tongues, like thee,
Had but perform'd a mimic's part;
Had moved from conscious meaning free,
Nor told the language of the heart!'

'* Henry the Seventh's Chapel, the burying-place of the kings of Great Britain.

"† I say unto you, that every idle word that men speak, they shall "give account thereof in the day of judgment." Matth. chap. xii. v. 36.'

We

We were inclined to quote, as a more important specimen, the whole of the poem entitled THE REFORMATION, already mentioned: but, on reperusal, we find it too long; which we regret, as its merit well entitles it to the honour of a transcript.—From the Elegy to the Memory of the late Rev. William Mason, we have already given an extract: See Rev. vol. XXIII. N. S. p. 456.

Art. 41. *Fabulæ Selectæ, Auctore* Joanne Gay, *Latine redditæ.* Select Fables of John Gay, translated into Latin, by Chr. Anstey, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

The ingenious author of this version, whose sportive pen, nearly 40 years ago, so happily recorded the humours of Bath, has long since not only been the acknowleged favourite of the Comic Muse, and her principal secretary, but has been allowed to have furnished the model of a species of poetry of a singularly entertaining kind. He has likewise acquired the reputation of a superior knowlege and taste in the Roman tongue; of which he has given indisputable proofs, by his classical Latinity, on various occasions.

In his preface, Mr. Anstey informs us that these fables were translated many years ago (1777) for the use of his children, and anonymously addressed to the Prince of Wales; and that he now bequeaths them, in a more correct state, as a legacy to his grandchildren. He adds: if by this attempt he should be thought worthy of a place on the 4th form at Eton, which he has quitted nearly sixty years, he shall not, at the age of seventy, envy those who are placed on the *seventh form* by the facetious author of *The Pursuits of Literature* *. The original English accompanies the Latin version.

The Fables of Phædrus are written in iambics; those of Mr. Anstey appear in hexameter and pentameter verse. We are not certain that we do not prefer the former structure, which, in the hands of the Roman fabulist, is eminently simple and elegant. Every learned reader will, however, admire the present work for its accuracy, and for its *Anstеyan* terseness.

We shall insert the following Fable, which is the 4th in the collection, as a specimen:

'PUELLA ET VESPA.

'Quot patitur vanos Virgo formosa susurros!
Stultitiæ quoties ludit in aure sonus!
Quicquid agit, quoquò veneres radiantia pandunt
Lumina, inepta subest sollicitatque cohors:
Sin teneræ nullâ capiant dulcedine nugæ,
Hæc vetet asperior frons, tacitusque pudor:
Stultus terga daret justâ gravitate repulsus;
Vel minimo carpit verbere musca fugam;
Quis tamen innumeram cogat discedere gentem?
Altera succedet, quem fugit una, loco:

* Alluding to the form to which the learned translators of Gray's Elegy into Greek verse are elevated, in the Pursuits of Literature; which Mr. Anstey calls: *Opus sanè non mediocris ingenii: Eruditionis admodùm reconditæ; et abundè salis.*

Qui

Qui stultum novit, fratrem quoque noscat oportet;
Quis comitem, quem non laudet, ineptus habet?
Et primo quæcunque aurem dedit ardelioni,
Hanc pœnam meritâ peste puella luit.

'*Officio*, DORIS, *studioque operata diurno,*
Ad speculum, formæ dum studiosa, sedet,
Nunc hilari sibi fronte placens, nunc ore severo,
Æstivos fallit desidiosa dies.

'*Hic ubi lenta sedet, gyro secat aera circum*
Lascivam carpens Vespa proterva viam;
Nunc reprimit, nunc urget iter, nunc oscula figit
Cervici, aut roseas appetit ore genas;
Verbera non icti defendunt ora flabelli,
Illa novo rediens corda timore movet;
Pulsa etenim fit mente audacior, inque labello
Insidet, et rorem luxuriosa bibit;

'*Nympha fremit, frontemque trahens, O! Numina, clamat,*
Muscarum crucians hoc prohibete genus;
Quotquot habent pestes, non importunius ullum
Turpibus his vespis Dii tribuere malum.

'*Tene mei captum fastidia, voce querenti*
Vespa ait, et fidus sic tibi sordet amor?
Hæccine culpa movet? (quæ si tibi culpa videtur)
Non mihi, sed formæ est attribuenda tuæ.
Hoc tibi purpureum, quod spirat thura, labellum,
Quæque sedet roseis læta juventa genis,
Impulit, ut pomo, quo non speciosius unquam
Persica terra tulit, sit mihi posse frui.

'*Ah! ne cæde*, JANETTA, *haud muscæ ignobilis instar,*
Unquam Vespa neci sit data, DORIS *ait,*
Nam quamvis animal sit paulò audacius, hercle
Urbanos mores, ingenuosque sapit.

'*Exultans animis illa agmina conscia jungit,*
Nymphaque quàm facilis, quàm sit amica docet;
Se gustasse Theam cum Virgine jactat odoram,
Suaviaque in labris signa notare jubet.

'*His monita indiciis, et sorti fisa secundæ*
Hùc omnis subitò turba proterva volat;
Participat mensæ luxum importuna diurnæ,
Et circum aerio ludit ubique sono;
Nunc agitata fremit, nunc paulùm immota quiescit,
Nunc iterum ascendit, pervolitatque sinum;
Nec cedit; Vespis dum sentit inesse venenum,
Ictaque crudeli cuspide nympha dolet.'

Art. 42. *The Secret*, a Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane. By E. Morris, Esq; Barrister at Law. 8vo. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davis.

This play has had the good fortune to *run* (as the phrase is) a considerable time, but does not appear to us to be constructed on a very

very clear and interesting fable; nor to abound in wit, humour, or original characters. There is, however, merit in the dialogue, and the principles are good; yet perhaps the part of Dorville is somewhat overcharged with a goodness and benevolence of which the prototype would not be easily found in nature; and which, if practised to the same extent, would bring a man to ruin, unless some miraculous events were to extricate him from his difficulties.

The character of Jack Lizard, at first, promised a new species of humour in the silent nod and pantomimical replies of Banister; but, when he is made to talk, though his father prepared us for a wit by telling us that "he says more good things than any man," all originality disappears; and little opportunity is afforded to the excellent representative of the character, for the display of his humorous powers.

Mrs. Jordan, as usual, made the most of her part; sang delightfully a ballad, which had little merit in the words, or in the music, except what her exquisite voice gave it; and, in speaking the Epilogue, which has merit in itself, she manifested so much pleasantry, play of countenance, and variety of gesture, that she put many into such good humour on the first night, that they were stimulated to extend their applause to the proposal of the play for a second representation, though they scarcely moved a hand during the performance.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 43. *Military Instructions:* including each particular Motion of the Manual and Platoon Exercises; elucidated with very minute Drawings by Mr. R. K. Porter. By David Roberts, Lieut. and Acting Adjutant of the 1st Regt. of Life Guards. 4to. 36 Pages; 24 Plates. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

This work is confined to the *drill:* but, since the celebrated *Discipline for the Norfolk Militia*, by Lord Townshend and the late Mr. Windham, we have not seen a publication in which every motion of the manual and platoon exercises is so distinctly and minutely described. Each motion is illustrated by a figure.

The plates are very accurately executed, but we observe the following errors in the references: Fig. 1. Plate 8. is misquoted for Fig. 3. (page 11, line 5,) and Fig. 4. Plate 10. for Fig. 3. page 14.

In page 13, the author proceeds to *Unfix Bayonets* from *Support Arms*, without apprizing the reader that the soldier must previously be made to *Order Arms*.

Mr. Roberts concludes with a proper caution to young officers, not to punish and confine their men wantonly, but to follow the golden adage, and "let precept be supported by example."

Art. 44. *Secret Instructions*, by Frederick the Second, *King of Prussia:* Being Secret Orders given by that Monarch to the Officers of his Army, and particularly to those of the Cavalry, for the Regulation of their Conduct in War. Translated from the Original German, into French, by *the Prince De Ligne*, and now First translated into English. By [as appears from the Dedication] Edward Eyre, late Captain in the 40th Regiment, and

and Lieut. Col. in the Army. 12mo. pp. 195. 4s. 6d. sewed. E. and T. Williams. 1798.

When Lieut. Col. Eyre, in August 1798, asserted this work to be 'now first translated into English,' he certainly was not aware that a spirited translation of the very same tract was published in March 1797, by Lieut. Foster, of the 1st or Royal Dragoons. (See Rev. Vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 327.) The Colonel will therefore forgive our assuring him that the present is in no respect the *first* translation.

Art. 45. *Instructions for forming a Regiment of Infantry for Parade of Exercise*, together with the Eighteen Manœuvres, as ordered to be practised by His Majesty's Infantry Forces, accompanied by Explanations and Diagrams. Oblong 8vo. pp. 139. 5s. Boards. Egerton. 1798.

This book contains precisely that part of Captain Reide's excellent *Treatise on the Duty of Infantry Officers, and the present System of British Military Discipline*, (see our last Rev. p. 335,) which relates to forming a battalion and to the eighteen manœuvres: but it has the advantage of being illustrated by plates.

The compiler, we find by the dedication, is Captain H. Dickinson of the East India Volunteers: who, 'not being a professional Military Man,' is entitled to credit for the attention which he has paid to the service.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 46. *A brief Examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce, and Manufactures of Great Britain*, from 1792 to 1799. By George Rose, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Wright, &c.

The measures to which Mr. Rose here principally attributes the support of the finances are, 1st, The appropriation, in 1786, of the annual million towards the extinction of the national debt: 2dly, The firmness of administration in not applying the produce of the sinking fund to the relief of the necessities of the state: 3dly, The act passed in 1792, which provided that, on all future loans, (in addition to the tax for paying the interest,) a surplus of one *per cent.* should be raised, towards the redemption of the capital created. 4thly, and finally, the last adopted measure of the income tax.

With respect to a sinking fund, it is easily capable of demonstration, that its effect in diminishing a debt must depend on the fund consisting, or not consisting, of a fair surplus of revenue above the whole necessary annual expenditure: yet a sinking fund must nevertheless operate considerably in maintaining the credit of the stocks. We do not understand why, as in the following paragraph, Mr. R. thinks it necessary to speak of our being enabled to *repeal* taxes by means of the sinking fund, when the new debt accumulates much more rapidly than the old debt is diminished:

'As the dividends due on such parts of the old debt as shall be paid off after the sinking fund shall have attained its maximum, and the annuities which shall afterwards fall in, will be at the disposal of Parliament; the period of repealing taxes annually to that amount (probably 200,000l. and in the first year much more) cannot be delayed more than 9, 10, or 11 years.'

It appears that, in the last six years, while the annual produce of the sinking fund has increased 1,740,710l., the additional charge which the nation has incurred by the war is 7,931,215l.

Mr. R. is very sanguine in his expectations from the income tax. He says,

'The efforts lately made by the country are not the transient and temporary exertion of its means to answer an occasional emergency; by adhering to the same wise and provident measures which have lately been adopted, the same annual expenditure can be afforded, without any permanent addition to the national debt; as the amount of the debt which will be incurred, in this and every subsequent year of the war, will be so reduced by the application of the money coming in from the tax on income (after ten millions shall have been raised for the service of each current year), as that the permanent debt, which will be left as an addition to the antecedent one, will not exceed the annual amount of the whole produce of the sinking fund.'

The permanent taxes Mr. Rose has taken at 21 millions. For land and malt, with the expected produce of new taxes, lottery, *Indian participation*, &c. he adds nearly 4½ millions, making a total of 25,425,000l. Admitting that this statement is not over-rated, and adding to it as much as the most favorable calculations have estimated for the produce of the income tax, the whole must yet fall considerably short of the annual expenditure. If, however, the country shall be able to sustain a continuance of the burthens now established, the financial prospect will have been rendered more favorable than for some years past there has been reason to expect; and if improved by economical management, (and where such great sacrifices are made, there is no plea for a neglect of economy,) the benefit may probably be permanent.

The objections stated by Mr. R. to a tax on capital are, that the assistance of a lawyer and a mathematician would be necessary in almost every case of real, and in many cases of personal, property; and that the whole of the interests in reversionary estates must escape. Perhaps, there will not be found less work for lawyers and mathematicians in the present income tax, than there would have been in a tax on capital; and as to reversionary interests, if property be taxed in the hands of the present possessor, it does not seem a reasonable cause of complaint that the expectant should not be taxed till he comes into possession. If the substance pays, government may reasonably be satisfied, though the shadow escapes.

Art. 47. *Report of the Committee of Secrecy of the House of Commons*; whom the several Papers, referred to in his Majesty's Message of the 22d of January 1799, and which were presented (sealed up) to the House by Mr. Secretary Dundas, upon the 23d of the said Month by his Majesty's Command, were referred; and who were directed to examine the Matters thereof, and report the same, as they shall appear to them, to the House. Ordered to be printed 15th March 1799. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

This Report contains a collection of accounts of the proceedings of the different popular meetings in Great Britain and Ireland, since the year 1791; of the proceedings of government to suppress those meetings;

meetings; and against individuals, on charges of treasonable practices and sedition; also an account of the progress of the Society of United Irishmen in Ireland, till the period of the rebellion, &c. &c. With an Appendix containing papers, and documents, relative to the subjects of the Report. At the conclusion of the Report, the inferences drawn by the Committee, on a review of all the circumstances which came under their cognizance, are stated.

We cannot enter into a detail of the various contents of this pamphlet, but we recommend it to the attentive perusal and serious consideration of the public.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 48. *Reply of L. N. M. Carnot, Citizen of France, one of the Founders of the Republic, and Constitutional Member of the Executive Directory;* to the Report made on the Conspiracy of the 18th Fructidor, 5th Year, by J. Ch. Bailleul, in the Name of the Select Committee. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Wright. 1799.

From the pen of a man who has filled an eminent station with the reputation of superior abilities, and whose fall from that elevation was attended with circumstances so extraordinary and of such importance as to command the general attention of Europe, great information, and perhaps some entertainment, would naturally be expected. The pamphlet now presented to the public, under the title of L. N. M. Carnot's Reply to the accusations against him contained in the report made by J. Ch. Bailleul, appears so little capable of creating interest, and affords so little entertainment in the perusal, that, before implicit credit can be given to what it advances as information, more evidence, than merely what a title-page furnishes, seems requisite to prove that Carnot is its real author. The English editor himself says;

'It is not easy to discover the motive which could have led to the publication of the following work; a work which, when we consider the situation of the author, whether with a view to the ambitious prospects which he may be supposed still to entertain, or to that regard for character which is never wholly abandoned by the most profligate of mankind, must appear equally prejudicial to his interests and to his reputation.'

Again he says: 'With respect to the authenticity of the work, we have no means of forming a judgment but what are equally open to our readers, namely, an attentive examination of the evidence contained in the work itself.' On this ground, the editor feels convinced of its authenticity, and on this ground some may be inclined to doubt it:—but we do not pretend to form a decisive opinion.

A petulance of expression and an indecent levity run through the whole. Scurrility is plentifully bestowed, but such as bears more the appearance of affectation of anger, than of genuine indignation. The lie is several times given, and other expressions occur which are at least equally coarse. 'The acrimonious viper coiled himself again on his chair.'—'Such are the filthy excrements of falsehood,' &c. When serious reflection is attempted, it never rises above the most common-place sentiment.

The ensuing conversation is described as having passed in the Directory:

'At the discussion which was held, to determine on what footing that country (*i. e.* Holland) should be placed in the treaty then negotiating at Lisle with Lord Malmesbury, Reubel made a violent harangue against the Batavian nation. He said, they were all Stadtholderians, and had constantly betrayed us. They were a nation of merchants, whose interests were centered in England, whose wishes were in favour of the English, who were only watching for an opportunity to surrender themselves to the English, into whose hands Admiral T. Lucas had recently delivered his fleet at the Cape of Good Hope. Every thing that Holland had to gain in prosperity and in riches, it was evident, could only be at the expence of France, and to the advantage of England. In short, there was but one line of conduct to pursue with regard to Holland—'TO KEEP HER IN THE MOST ABSOLUTE DEPENDENCE—TO SUBJECT HER TO A PASSIVE OBEDIENCE—AND TO TREAT HER AS A CONQUERED COUNTRY!!!'

"If this be so," said I, "we are very unwise to continue the war merely for the restoration of their colonies; or, when our own are offered us, to exhaust the remains of our marine in vain efforts to serve so ungrateful a nation. I am of opinion that Holland should be asked, what sacrifices she is willing to make to obtain peace?"

"But do you imagine," replied Reubel, "that it is for Holland that I would demand the restitution of the Cape and Trincomalé? The first object is that of recovering the possession of them, for which purpose, the Dutch must furnish the ships and the money, and afterwards I will clearly convince them that these colonies belong to us!!!"

The following (not very circumstantial) account is given of the escape of Carnot from the fury of his colleagues:

'A body of assassins had been posted at a back gate of my garden, whom the guard of the Directory, by my orders, commanded to retire, and they obeyed when they found that they were discovered. A few minutes previous to the departure of the detachment, who were appointed to arrest me, an aid de camp was dispatched to know if I was still at my house; where I certainly was, and quitted it but at the moment when the guard entered the apartments. The Luxembourg was, as it were, invested by a large body of troops, supported by artillery; but I deceived the vigilance of the assassins, by availing myself of a secret passage of which they were ignorant. I heard the discharge of the alarm gun, just as I had shut the last door through which I was to pass; and, with a pistol in each hand, I wandered for three hours about the city, and took my way through bye streets, in order to avoid the detachments of soldiers which had been augmented on that occasion, and that I might, at length, reach the asylum where I fled for safety. Reubel could not express the violence of his anger at the officer who carried the order of arrest; and Barras was so inconceivably base, as to accompany the soldiers who were ordered to seize the feeble Barthelemy.

'On the 19th, when the council excepted from the proscription certain representatives, and among others Doulcet, the Directory addressed

addressed a very insolent message to the Council on that occasion, who, recovered from its first impressions of terror, refused to change its determination. This message is well known. It was then the opinion of Réveillère, that Doulcet should be assassinated. To say the truth, give that man but an opportunity to do any thing, and he will soon find the means of doing it.'

Whether the Directory be capable of the intentions here ascribed to them, is not the question: but it is remarkable that, from the foregoing extract, M. Carnot appears, after his expulsion and escape, to have continued still to be acquainted with what passed in the Directory.

Art. 49. *A Translation of Passages from Greek, Latin, Italian, and French Writers*, quoted in the Prefaces and Notes to "The Pursuits of Literature; a Poem in Four Dialogues." To which is prefixed, a *Prefatory Epistle*, intended as a general Vindication of *the Pursuits of Literature*, from various Remarks which have been made upon that Work. By the Translator. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Becket. 1798.

The writer, editor, or author of this miscellaneous volume offers it to the public, not as the production of that inscrutable pen to which they are so much obliged for "*The Pursuits of Literature*," but as coming from the volunteer hand of a friend.—A man of genius will always find or can easily make friends, at pleasure.

It matters little, however, who is the proper *author* of such a book as that which now claims our attention. Suffice it that a work of the kind was wanted, and that here it is.—Its purpose is to illustrate a poet whom all men read, whom many approve, and whom still more admire. In the number of readers, of which these classes are composed, it may be very reasonably concluded that there are not a few to whom a *translation* of the numerous citations from works, which are familiarly known to those only who are conversant with the classical and foreign languages, must undoubtedly be very acceptable; and for *their* use the work is professedly published.—Let the editor, or translator, or whatever title best pleaseth his ear, explain, in his own words, his inducement to this undertaking: we quote from his 'Prefatory Epistle;' addressed to L. B——, Esq.

'I have been informed that repeated requests have been made to the publisher of "the Pursuits of Literature," for a translation of the passages from various languages quoted in the notes to that poem. I wish the author had translated them himself; but as that cannot be the case, I have, at your immediate desire, endeavoured to give you some idea of their force and full meaning. As you are of opinion that my attempt will not be disagreeable or unsatisfactory to many persons who are not peculiarly conversant in Greek and Latin, I have consented to print and publish them.'

As to this 'Prefatory Epistle,' its main design is to give (as the title-page expresses) a general defence of the *Pursuits*, &c. against the various attacks which have been made on that celebrated poem, by hostile critics and rival poets; and this purpose the author of the

epistle has accomplished, with all the *warmth*, not to say the *partiality*, of the most *intimate* friendship.

Among the opponents of the poem here defended, the attention of the *Epistolary* Critic is chiefly employed on a performance entitled "The *Progress of Satire, an Essay in Verse**;" a work of more desert than is here allowed to it; for it is treated as possessing very little merit indeed! In opposition, however, to the present writer's opinion, some of his readers, perhaps, may quote his own *conduct*; since he has vouchsafed to devote many—many pages to a laboured and severe castigation of this *despised* adversary!—These numerous pages, however, are enlivened by a variety of miscellaneous strictures and excursive remarks; similar, in manner, (we avoid particulars,) to the general tenor of the *Prefaces* to the several editions of the PURSUITS, &c. with the perusal of which we have been successively amused;—as we likewise have been, in no small degree, with the contents of the present supplemental volume.

Art. 50. *Supplement to the Progress of Satire*, containing Remarks on the *Pursuer* of Literature's Defence. 8vo. 1s. Bell. 1799.

The *Prefatory Epistle* mentioned in the preceding Article has given birth to this *Reply*, from the author of the *Progress of Satire*; who, as it appears, not feeling himself totally vanquished by the '*Pursuer*,' as he terms his opponent, [in return perhaps for that gentleman's having called *him* the *Progressionist*,] here renews the combat.—Among the literary kicks and cuffs which he aims at his powerful adversary, there seem to be some "*good hits*;" particularly when he remarks on what the *Pursuer* has suggested respecting the danger which the celebrated satirist apprehends from the countenance given by us to the French emigrant clergy. He likewise warmly reprobates the censure which the Pursuer has so harshly cast on Dr. Warton, on account of his edition of Pope's work. Many, indeed, are of opinion that the venerable editor has not been altogether candidly treated on this occasion; nor, in every respect, according to the true principles of criticism respecting the duty of an editor.

FAST SERMONS, Feb. 27, 1799.

Art. 51. *Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, Feb.* 27, 1799. By Shute, Lord Bishop of Durham. 4to. 1s. Payne.

The text of this sermon is from Luke xiii. 1—5. and it is treated as it ought to be by a Christian preacher. The style is plain and unaffected, and not a spark of national or personal invective is to be found in it. We give the following extracts as a specimen:

'It was our Saviour's manner to give a practical turn to every thing. Questions and occasions, which, by their own nature, and probably according to the design of those who introduced them, might have led to abstruse and mysterious speculations, drew from him unexpected lessons of duty, admonitions immediately applicable to conduct. Instructions thus conveyed, must have come upon

* See Rev. vol. xxv. N. S. p. 472.

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the inquirer, and to the audience with a force, which we who read them now, feel and conceive very imperfectly, because we have not present to our senses and observation, those circumstances and realities, which gave aptness and impression to the answer, power and efficacy to the reflection.'

After having rehearsed the answer given by Jesus to those Jews who *told him of the Galilæans, whose blood Pilate had mingled with their sacrifices;* the Bishop adds:

'The doctrine which I consider our Lord as laying down by these examples is, that Almighty God in the dispensation of corrective evil, which he is pleased to carry on in this world, as it is connected with that dispensation which awaits us in another, out of many alike "concluded under sin," alike obnoxious to his judgements, out of many who share in a common depravity, instead of destroying all, punishes some in order to afford a warning to others; that, if those others do not take warning by the example, they shall assuredly fall by the same hand; incur, not perhaps in the same manner, but the same destruction, as they have seen inflicted; that the thus taking warning to themselves is the proper, the intended use and application of every signal calamity which comes to pass before their eyes; and, lastly, that in a religious view, this is the only use which we are authorised to make of them.

'These considerations, which ought never perhaps to be long absent from our thoughts, are at this time brought before our view by the situation in which we are placed. Can it be necessary to remind any one person who hears me, that tremendous warnings have been given, and continue to be given to a careless age. A devouring fire is kindled upon the earth. All endeavours, I will not say to check, but to subdue it's fury, have hitherto failed. In what direction it's flames may next be carried, human foresight is not able to predict. They who are spared have cause to tremble. That sacred voice ought to be still sounding in their ears, "except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish." With deep thankfulness indeed for the mercy by which we have hitherto been protected, and for the opportunity and space for reflection and amendment which have already been vouchsafed to them, still they ought to see their danger as it is: they ought to see, that, acting as reasonable men, they can neither dismiss their fears, remit their penitence, nor forget their vows.'

Again, deploring the religious insensibility of the age, his Lordship makes this excellent remark:

'But from whatever cause or quarter this deep insensibility to the truths of religion hath proceeded, I fear I am too well warranted in asserting that it still exists. A series of visitations the most awful, of public calamities the most general, of political changes the most tremendous, which any age of the world ever experienced within the same period, have not done away our negligence in these most important of all human concerns. The successive fall of states and kingdoms, the ruin of establishments and institutions by which the order of civil life hath hitherto been maintained, the devastation of countries,

countries, the misery of millions, though events passing at our doors, under our eyes, amongst those with whom we are connected by society or alliance, have produced very little, if any, change upon our religious dispositions. The truth is, that whatever we may pretend, we are not affected at the heart by these things.'

From these specimens, we presume, our readers will be not only enabled to judge of the merit of the Bishop's sermon, but will be induced to peruse it with serious attention.

Art. 52. *A Fast Sermon for February the 27th*, 1799, from Isaiah, Chapter x. Verse 5. 4to. 1s. Stockdale.

When, where, or by whom, this discourse was preached, does not appear: but with energy of diction and strength of argument, it urges on men an alteration and amendment of life.—Having taken notice of the wickedness of the world, and of the Jewish state in particular, at the time when the Messiah appeared, it is asked, 'what remedy did the Saviour bring with him for these evils?'—the laconic, but impressive, answer is;—'He brought repentance.'—This, nevertheless, it is added in the progress of the sermon, is the only remedy which we are unwilling to try; and rather than cast a thought on it, we are for recurring to every other feasible experiment. The first thing which we do, in order to liberate ourselves from the slavery of sin, is to use the powers of nature, art, and industry; the second, to endeavour to call down, by prayer and supplication, the aid of supernatural agency:—but this is not of the least avail without repentance. We can never hope to prosper by either of these modes; for our sins prevent our prayers from succeeding. 'It was not (we are told) the sword of God alone, nor the sword of Gideon, that conquered the Midianites, but the sword of God *and* Gideon. The force of God and man united makes human efforts succeed:—but when this union is broken by our sins, all our endeavours are rendered doubly useless, by depriving us of the aid of God, and of the strength of our own arm.'

These few lines may afford some idea of the nature and importance of this anonymous discourse.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In acknowleging the letter from the author of the pamphlet on *Chess*, (noticed in our last Number,) we must take the liberty of delivering it as our opinion, that too obstinate an adherence to any system is the broad path to certain delusion; and that, if pursued, it will, in the strong language of the East, bring a man at last to believe that the freshest sandal-wood is a flame of fire.—We cannot follow the author through the whole of his letter, but must offer a remark on the beginning and the end of it.

The game of chess was a military one, and is still so with us, except that the piece on our boards, called the Queen, has not much of that aspect: but, properly, that piece is Pherz, or General, and from Pherz, Vizir, became Vierge, Lady, or Queen. If this be so, how

how is the difference of the English and the Chinese games equal to the difference between their governments; or, in other words, between freedom and despotism? The author will find the characteristics of chess in a poem attributed to Lucan, and addressed to Calphurnius Piso: "*Mille modis acies tua dimicat.*"

There is no game but chess, in which the blocking up of the King puts an end to it. Neither Greeks nor Romans played at chess, as Mr. Barrington has shewn. The name of the game in Ovid, of which he wanted to be informed, is Spiccoli, and is still played by the Italians, and has been lately introduced into this country.—Our correspondent says, 'but the King, I think, may without much straining be supposed never to quit the board; I consider him, when the grand stroke is received, in a similar situation with the chief magistrate of England, when the check-mate of an adverse majority forces him to have a fresh administration.' This quotation shews that civil government is no more like chess than the πεττεία of the Greeks, the *Latrunculi* of the Latins, the Spiccoli of the Italians, or the Drafts of the French; for what Jacobus was there, at any time, who could not save himself by taking a boat at Whitehall; or what Walpole, who could not escape through the gallery of the House of Commons? ! !

We must decline any farther attention to this subject. Opinions will differ; and arguments may be extended to a great length, without producing conviction.

In farther reply to our correspondent D., (see page 120,) we have to mention that the first volume of Forster's Travels appeared in Calcutta in 1789, during the life of the author, who was then understood to be employed in preparing the second for the press. When the war commenced with Tippu Sultan, Mr. Forster was appointed ambassador to the Mahratta court of Nagpûr, and died soon after his arrival in that city. We have no reason for doubting that the second volume is compiled from the papers found in his possession, after his decease.

We are concerned to learn, by a second letter from General Vallancey, that, in offering our observations on his performance, (see page 116,) we were guilty of a breach of politeness, because his work was only intended for distribution among his friends, and not for the public eye. We hope that the General will excuse the following short explanation of our conduct in this affair.—Capt. Wilford has (we think) incautiously permitted the publication of his opinion, that the islands of Great Britain and Ireland constitute the Tricatachol of the Hindu Puranas. *Primâ facie*, the fact is an improbable one; yet we well know that Capt. Wilford's conclusions are not usually founded on slender premises:-and whenever his proofs are submitted to the public, we are satisfied that they will merit attention. It was obvious, however, that General Vallancey and Mr. Maurice had mistaken the assertion for the proof, by publishing Capt. W.'s observations under the title of "Extracts from the Puranas." Our

duty to the public obliged us to develope this important misconception, and justice to those Gentlemen seemed to require that we should transfer the blame to their correspondent in India, (Mr. Ousely,) with whom it originated. In all this, we flatter ourselves, the candor of General Vallancey will see matter for commendation rather than for censure.

We shall willingly publish the letter respecting General Washington, sent to us by a correspondent, F. B—y: but we must first request this gentleman to authenticate his communication by farther identifying himself, giving his place of residence, &c. If he does not choose that such particulars should appear in print, they must however be confided to us.

Mr. Bridel informs us that, in the account which we gave (in our last Review) of his *Introduction to Grammar*, we were, 'by a mistake of the printer, led to throw a doubt on his being the author;' which he begs us 'to rectify.'

'A Hertfordshire Farmer' is referred to our xvith vol. New Series, p. 454.

Can 'A constant Reader,' whose letter bears the Bawtry post mark, conscientiously say that he has a right to give us the trouble of answering questions, and to make us pay heavy postage for his letter which contains them? We are always disposed to oblige our correspondents: but really, in these days of *taxation*, such taxes as these on our time and our pockets ought to be resisted. We will, however, answer this gentleman's question,—in the negative.

The above observations apply, in part, to another 'Constant Reader,' who inquires about a system of Geography; and whom we must refer to some intelligent friend.

J. A—n's second letter is received, but we have at present mislaid his first.

Rusticus, Dr. Booker, and some others, we are obliged to postpone, by the want of time and room.

☞ With the Review for May, will be published the APPENDIX to the xxviiith volume of the New Series: containing copious accounts of important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS, and the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume.

*** In the Number for March, p. 272. l. 17. dele the word '*line*' after '*metre*;'—and in p. 356. l. 25. dele '*of*' after '*comprehending*.'

APPENDIX

TO THE

TWENTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Theorie des Fonctions Analytiques*; &c. *i. e.* The Theory of Analytical Functions; containing the Principles of the Differential Calculus, divested of all Reference to infinitely small or evanescent Quantities, Limits, or Fluxions, and reduced to the Algebraical Analysis of finite Quantities. By J. L. La Grange, of the National Institute. 4to. pp. 270. Paris. 1798.

The highest commendation of intellectual excellence is that which is bestowed on genius, the talent of invention. It is this talent which, if it constitutes the poet, also ennobles the mathematician, and elevates him from the unfruitful contemplation of lines and angles, to extend or to perfect the methods of analysis, and to devise new or to combine old theories. In proportion to the difficulty or importance of any discovery, is its merit; and to ascertain the quantity of such merit, in many cases, is matter of curious and instructive speculation; as it will be necessary for us to trace the discovery from its first nascent idea, through all its variety of form and augmentation, to its full and perfect maturity; to observe how much this or that individual contributed to its advancement; and to ascertain the value of the last portion of labour and ability by which its completion was accomplished. We speak of united efforts: for rarely do we find that any invention is comprised within the limits of the intellectual progress of an individual. It seems not to come within the compass of the same man's power both to invent and to perfect,—to lay the deep and solid foundation-stone, and to rear the edifice till

"its turrets sparkle in the skies." In general, the steps of a discovery are to be traced in the histories of the mental travels of many;—taking a long retrospect, we shall observe it in its small beginning and obscure origin; after that, more and more sensible, from the continual accumulation given to it by genius and meditation.

We will take an instance to illustrate and confirm this idea.—Originality of invention has been unanimously attributed to Newton; and the zealous admiration of his contemporaries is confirmed by the sober and corrected judgment of posterity. Exhibiting a vast and comprehensive mind, patience and assiduity in meditation, and appearing not (it would seem) in the fulness of time, but prematurely, his works caused the epoch of a revolution in science. Yet, if we examine the writings of those who preceded him, it will be evident that the honour of his inventions is not his entirely, and exclusively of all other claim; that his way had been prepared and made easy; that he did not live in an age of ignorance, nor of neglected science; and that, if (as we grant) he was the mighty and towering * oak of the forest, the trees surrounding him were of no mean bulk and height. Sometimes, we shall be inclined to think that fortune befriended him, if we may use such a mode of expression and principle of explanation; and that, like Pompey in the war of Mithridates, he stepped in to strike the last blow, and to enjoy the triumph of a victory already ensured by the labours of another. Let us examine the circumstances under which two of Newton's inventions were accomplished; the doctrine of Central forces in Curves, and the Fluxionary Calculus. Previously to Newton, Huygens had invented the theories of Central forces in Circles, and of the Evolute of Curves. The theory of the Central forces in Curves is merely the combination of these two theories; the chief merit seems to belong to Huygens, who had overcome the greatest difficulties; he had only one step more to advance; and we should even deem this last step easy, did we not know that it required a Newton to take it. The fluxionary calculus, the second invention, is intimately connected with the present subject of our inquiry. Of this discovery, the seeds had not only been sown, but had sprung up and almost ripened to maturity. Newton did little more than give simplicity and generality to the methods in use; for instance, to that of Slusius for drawing tangents, and to that of Wallis for finding

* "*Enfin on voit Neuton s'élever comme un chêne au milieu de ces grands hommes, dominer tout par la force de sa tête, tout embrasser par l'etendue de son genie,*" &c. &c. M. Bailly.

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the areas of curves, by reducing, by means of infinite series, the irrational ordinate into such as were rational. We shall find methods on which that of the fluxionary calculus depended, or with which it has a very near affinity, in the works of Des-Cartes, who taught the application of algebra to geometry; in those of Fermat, who solved the problems of maxima and minima, and drew tangents to curves; in those of Cavalerius, who by his method of indivisibles solved a great variety of problems; in those of Pascal, Gregory, Toricelli, Wren, Hudde, and Slusius; and, finally, in the works of Barrow, who, by the use of his arithmetical triangle in the determination of the tangents of curves, had made such near approaches to the fluxional or differential calculus, that Newton and Leibnitz mutually reproached each other with having imposed on the world, as an original invention, the method of Barrow for tangents generalised, and disguised under a new notation *.

In saying this, we depreciate not the character of our great philosopher; Newton, like other men, must pass through futurity under the protection of his genius alone; and such is the quality of his fame, that it will bear the severest test, and be improved and exalted by it, when cleared from the dross of vague admiration and fulsome panegyric. After the most liberal allowance of praise to those authors to whom Newton is indebted for the success of his discoveries, there will still remain abundant matter to admire in the extent and fertility of his mind; and viewing what he did solely and unaided, we shall be compelled to exclaim "*homo homini quid præstat!*" There are those indeed, who, elevating him above humanity, confer on him a baseless and unsubstantial praise; who, referring to inspiration as the cause of that knowlege which resulted from patient investigation, betray their ignorance, and (which less admits of pardon) read to industry a pernicious and discouraging lesson. In fact, the example of Newton contains much wholesome truth. We learn thence that it is given to no man to derive all from native power, and to owe nothing to another; that by perseverance the greatest excellencies are to be obtained; that, if we would invent, we must first be conversant with the inventions of others; and that the most brilliant works of genius are produced from minds abundantly stored with rich materials. Is it not useful and animating information, that Newton was wise under those circumstances and by those means which have made other men wise; and that, as Homer was acquainted with all the learning of his

* See *Commercium Epistolicum*, and Leibnitz's letter April 9th 1716, in Raphson's History of Fluxions.

time, and as Michael Angelo and Raffaele possessed all the knowlege of the art that could be found in the works of their predecessors, so HE was master of all the stores of science collected by former geometricians? If the fluxionary or differential calculus were only the method of tangents improved and extended, even the merit of this generalization was denied to belong exclusively to Newton; for a claim to it was advanced and urged by a man of great attainments and most extraordinary powers. Previously to the publication of Newton's method of fluxions, Leibnitz had inserted in the acts of Leipsic his differential calculus. Hence arose the celebrated controversy between the friends of these two great men; which was conducted with a zeal more ardent than enlightened; not temperately and impartially, but contentiously and with acrimony. It soon assumed the form and imbibed the spirit of a national dispute. The question was hotly contested, not soberly discussed; victory, not truth, was the object of the controvertists: party opposed party; Leibnitz was seconded by the great Bernouilli: Newton was at the head of less powerful auxiliaries. After an interval of an hundred years, however, the question comes down to us divested of the false glosses which passion and prejudice gave to it; and after it has been carefully examined, we shall have but little reason to approve the final determination of the committee *, which was appointed to adjudge the affair. The documents on which judgment was given are contained in a publication called *Commercium Epistolicum*; a numerous collection of papers, memoirs, &c. which furnish matter for a decision more equitable than was really given. From these papers, as well as from other documents, the truth seems to be that Newton and Leibnitz arrived at the same discovery, each proceeding by his own proper route of ideas; a fact not at all remarkable, when we consider the inventive powers of the two men, and the near affinity of the methods then in use to the differential calculus.

Of the very various objections adduced against Leibnitz, some indeed, it must be confessed, are true, some are false, and some return on the accusers themselves. Against the evidence and exactness of his principles, the objection is to be admitted as valid: for, if, in his method, some quantities are neglected as less than others, then the results obtained by it

* This committee was either very perspicacious or very bold; for it asserted that, in the letter of 10th December 1672 from Newton to Collins, "the method of fluxions was sufficiently described to any intelligent person."

ought not to be exact; except it could be shewn that, during the process of the operations, a compensation of errors had taken place. Yet the apology offered for him by a learned mathematician (Bossut) is not undeserving of notice: "Leibnitz (says he) erred rather in his mode of expression, than in his conception of the true principles of his method; and he adopted a popular language, in order to offer a gross and sensible idea of the nature of the differences of quantities: but, in reality, his principle was the same as that on which the exhaustion of the antients was founded."

An objection of the second kind urged against Leibnitz is, that, had he truly been the inventor of the differential calculus, he would have shewn its utility and extensive application in various and important problems, as his rival did. Here the adversaries of Leibnitz cannot blame, without at the same time praising him *; and the grounds of his vindication are the very same with those on which his eulogium must be established: for, to shew why he did not push his researches farther, the peculiar nature of his mind and the marked character of his genius must be considered: a man must be exhibited, distinguished above all other men by variety of talent and universality of knowlege; eager to engage in a pursuit, quick to succeed in it, and sudden to quit it; directing his attention variously to history, geometry, poetry, the rights of nations, metaphysics, and literature;—ambitiously grasping at the whole circle of human intelligence.

In a contest of mere mathematical excellence, Newton and Leibnitz met on very unequal terms. The former was endowed with every quality which could form the perfect mathematician; with memory, nicety of discernment, exactness of judgment, facility of conception, and with that vigour of faculties which enabled him to bear the longest meditations, and to execute the most extensive plans. The latter was hurried by the vivacity of his genius from one pursuit to another; and his studies were distracted by the multiplicity of his occupations, or interrupted by his journies and correspondences. Unequal to his rival in comprehension and depth of judgment, he surpassed him in flexibility of mind and in rapid penetration †.

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* "*Quos vituperare ne inimici quidem possunt, nisi ut simul laudent.*"

† In the Antiquities of the House of Brunswick, (Gibbon's Miscellaneous Works, vol. ii. p. 638,) a character is drawn of Leibnitz, which is not indeed a model of encomiastic criticism, yet its conclusion is spirited and just. "The example of Leibnitz may display the extent and powers of the human understanding, but even

An objection of the third kind, which recoils on the very party that advances such an objection, is that the differential method of Leibnitz was only a generalization of the method of Barrow for tangents *; and is it not more probable that Newton, who, if not the disciple of Barrow, lived certainly in habits of intimacy with him, might have adopted such a generalization, than that Leibnitz should, who was a foreigner, and not even a correspondent of Barrow?

Yet of the method of fluxions properly so called, Newton is the sole and undisputed inventor; to him, beyond all doubt and controversy, is to be attributed the establishment of that doctrine on the consideration of motion. We will discuss, with as much brevity as possible, the advantage or excellence of this principle of motion. It will not be denied that this principle is introduced purely for the purpose of illustration; and of assisting the understanding by offering to it a mode, according to which it may conceive quantities to be generated;—not according to which quantities are really and in nature generated. The true defence of the principle of motion must be on the ground of convenience; and that of illustration, on the ground of giving a more sensible and palpable existence to that which is conceived to be too abstract in its nature, and too remote from common apprehension. If, however, for such a purpose, motion was introduced, as undoubtedly it was, the mathematical principle that was thence to be derived must necessarily be of a secondary kind; deduced not from the nature of things, but dependent on the import of words; not proceeding naturally from the affections and properties of the object of inquiry, but adopted arbitrarily, and determining those properties and affections †. The mathematical principle, on which

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his powers were dissipated by the multiplicity of his pursuits. He attempted more than he could finish, he designed more than he could execute: his imagination was too easily satisfied with a bold and rapid glance on the subject he was impatient to leave; and Leibnitz may be compared to those heroes, whose empire has been lost in the ambition of universal conquest."

* "*M. Newton hazarde icy une accusation, mais qui va tomber sur luy même. Il pretend que ce que j'ay ecrit pour luy à M. Oldenbourg, en 1677, est un deguisement de la méthode de M. Barrow. Mais, comme M. N. avoue dans la page 253 & 254, de la premiere edition de ses Principes,* "*Me ipsi tunc méthodum communicasse à methodo ipsius, vix alludentem præterquam in verborum et notarum formulis,*" *il s'ensuivra que sa méthode aussi n'est qu'un déguisement de celle de M. Barrow.*" Leibnitz's letter, April 9, 1716.

† (*Definitio*)—*nullatenus κατα φυσιν, ex suâ ipsius naturâ, sed omnino κατα θεσιν, ex hominum instituto, significans rem definitam.*

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the doctrine of fluxions depends, is a definition; and, as the consideration of motion had been introduced for the purpose of illustration, a figurative mode of speech was retained, and fluxions were defined to be velocities. As all conclusions are to be deduced from this definition, it is necessary to know the exact import of the term velocity. Now velocity is nothing real, but is only the relation between the space described and the time of describing it;—of which relation we have a clear idea when the motion is uniform. In variable motion, however, we inquire what velocity is; and here it is defined to be the relation between the space which *would* be described were the motion continued uniform from any point, and the time. Still, difficulties remained; this definition might convey to the mind a general idea of the nature of velocity, but was of no *mathematical* use, since the *space which would be described* could not be immediately ascertained and determined. Another step was therefore to be made, and which was made by establishing this proposition; If V be the velocity, S the space, which would be described, and T the time, S' the space really described, and T' the corresponding time; then $V = \frac{S}{T} =$ ultimate ratio of $\frac{S'}{T'}$ when S' and T' are indefinitely diminished; the real difficulty of the business, and the true object of inquiry, were then to establish what this ultimate ratio or limit of $\frac{S'}{T'}$ was; or, in other words, when a method of assigning the precise and determinate value of the limit of $\frac{S'}{T'}$ had been investigated, then and not till then could V be determined *.

Had not Newton been the inventor of this method of considering and treating fluxions, we are of opinion that very few persons would have contended either for its metaphysical or mathematical excellence; for, on the ground of perspicuity and evidence, the understanding is not much assisted by being directed to consider all quantity as generated by motion; lines

* The velocity in variable motion may be represented in a different manner from the one already stated; thus, if the axis of a curve be taken to represent the time, and the ordinates the spaces described, the velocity (supposing its measure to be the space which would be described, were the velocity continued uniform from any point,) would be the ordinate divided by the subtangent; yet, in this case, the inquiry is reduced in a similar manner to what it was in the former; since the real object would be, the method of drawing tangents to curves,—a method which, if not identical with the differential, has a very close affinity to it.

we can conceive generated by the motion of points, surfaces by the motion of lines, *&c.*: but, when such quantities as weight, density, force, resistance, *&c.* become the object of inquiry, and are said to have their flux and velocity, then the true end of the figurative mode of speech, *illustration*, is lost. On the ground of mathematical convenience *,—that the definition of fluxions as given is commodious to deduce thence their properties and affections,—nothing is gained; since the inquiry is reduced ultimately, (*en dernière analyse*,) to the determination of the ultimate ratios of vanishing quantities, or of the limits of such quantities; which latter method is only the former algebraically expressed.

That which happened to Aristotle has happened to Newton; his followers have bowed so implicitly to his authority, that they have not exercised their reason. The method of fluxions had never so acute, so learned, and so judicious a defender as Maclaurin:—his work is most valuable for the variety of information which it contains, and for many specimens of clear and forcible argumentation:—yet whoever consults it, and sees the various artifices which he is obliged to employ for the purpose of demonstrating the several parts of the method, and the grounds of it not established in less than fifteen long theorems; and, in an inquiry purely mathematical, finds the author speaking of "causes and effects,"—"of the springs and principles of things," and proposing to deduce the "relation of quantities by comparing the powers which are conceived to generate them;"—will be convinced that this could only happen from so able a mathematician having failed to seize the right principle, and the true mode of explanation.

If, however, the English mathematicians first adopted Newton's method from veneration to him, or from a want of better information, they have since persevered in it (we may almost say) against conviction. We shall produce three instances, in which their manner of considering fluxions has been controverted with much perspicuity and forcible argumentation. The first instance is from the writings of d'Alembert, published 50 years ago.

"*Introduire ici le mouvement, c'est y introduire une idée étrangère, & qui n'est point necessaire à la demonstration: d'ailleurs, on n'a pas d'idée bien nette de ce que c'est que la vitésse d'un corps à chaque instant, lorsque cette vitésse est variable. La vitésse n'est rien de réel, c'est le*

* It has been thought a very good argument of Locke against innate principles, "that every thing could be accounted for without them." An argument of a similar kind renders the introduction of velocity unnecessary, in the doctrine about which we are speaking.

rapport

*rapport de l'espace au tems, lorsque la vîtesse est uniforme ; mais lorsque le mouvement est variable, ce n'est plus le rapport de l'espace au tems, c'est le rapport de la différentielle de l'espace à celle du tems ; rapport dont on ne peut donner d'idée nette, que par celle des limites. Ainsi, il faut nécessairement en revenir à cette dernière idée, pour donner une idée nette des fluxions *.*"

The second instance is from the learned Torelli, who thus animadverts on the principle of motion :

"*Neque vero quidquam agunt, qui infinitesimas quantitates rejicientes,* momenta quædam *earum loco geometriæ inferunt ; eaque ita vocant, quod concipiantur momento temporis finitæ magnitudinis fluxu oriri. Si enim momenta hæc vires suas fluendo explicant, non aliud sunt quam ipsæ, quas rejiciunt, infinitesimæ quantitates ; sin autem nituntur, neque tamen ultra tendunt, novum vocabulum frustra inducitur, dum id, quod nihil est, momentum appellatur.*"

The third instance is from the writings of Landen, who deserted the cause of his countrymen, and dared to think for himself. In the preface to a discourse on the Residual Analysis, published in 1758, he speaks of fluxions as being properly "a branch of the algebraic art;" and he remarks "that the principles of motion are not applicable to algebra;"—"that it can be only in a figurative sense, that an algebraic quantity can be said to increase or decrease with some velocity or degree of swiftness;"—"that it seems more proper, in the investigation of propositions by algebra, to proceed upon the *anciently received principles* of that art, than to introduce therein, without any necessity, the new fluxionary principles, derived from a consideration of motion; and the rather as the introduction of these new principles is not attended with any peculiar advantage."

These mathematicians could not be accused of labouring to destroy the foundations of the fluxionary calculus, and of not having other foundations of equally solid materials to lay in their stead. Many treatises have been written, nearly all by foreign mathematicians, in which the consideration of motion is entirely excluded; and in some of these treatises, the principles of the doctrine in question have been laid down with a considerable degree of evidence and exactness.

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* This passage, however, did not altogether escape notice; it gave an occasion to Dr. Wilson, the editor of Mr. Robins's tracts, to exercise his puerile criticism. His refutation of D'Alembert's argument (if refutation it can be called) consisted in representing as strict and logical, an expression, which was only meant to be an abridged one, and was adopted for the sake of conciseness and convenience.

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In the *Analyse des infinitement petits*, written by the Marquis de L'Hospital with the assistance of John Bernouilli, the principle of motion is excluded, but the *metaphysique* of the doctrine is by no means clear and satisfactory. A like character may be given to a large work of Messieurs Le Seur and Jacquier, the learned commentators of Newton. In the Residual Analysis of Landen, those problems which were supposed to require the aid of the *sublime geometry* (a title injudiciously given) were solved by a process purely algebraical: but the want of simplicity and facility in Mr. L.'s method is a very great objection to it. From the writings, however, of those two great mathematicians, Euler and D'Alembert, are to be obtained the most clear and precise notions of the principles on which the differential calculus is established. The former, in the preface to one * of his works, defines this calculus to be "*Methodus determinandi rationem incrementorum evanescentium, quæ functiones quæcunque accipiunt, dum quantitati variabili, cujus sunt functiones, incrementum evanescens tribuitur.*" He illustrates his meaning by examples, thus; if x be a quantity of which the increment is i, then when x becomes $x+i$, x^2 becomes $x^2+2xi+i^2$; and therefore

$$\text{Incr}^t x : \text{Incr}^t x^2 :: i : 2i+i^2 :: 1 : 2x+i$$

the limit of which ratio is $1 : 2x$ when $i=o$. Let $i=o$, and the limit of the ratio of these evanescent increments, which alone is regarded in the differential calculus, is $1 : 2x$; which is exact if i be absolutely o, and not otherwise. Hence, if i or dx represents the increment of x in this state, $2xi$ or $2x\,dx$ will represent that of x^2.

M. D'Alembert † discusses more fully and particularly the *metaphysique* of the doctrine, and affords us a more neat and precise idea of its true principles. He observes that the method is really founded on that of prime and ultimate ratios, or of limits, which latter method is only an algebraical translation of the former; that, in fact, there are no such things as infinitely small quantities; and that, when such quantities are

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* *Institutiones Calculi Differentialis.*

† This author (we speak of him merely as a mathematician) was extremely obnoxious to quackery; he took delight in reprobating and exposing to ridicule those authors who threw an air of mystery or sublimity over their productions, and endeavoured to make plain things unintelligible; and although, as a late writer represents, affecting to destroy the *absurdities* only of religion, he really laboured to destroy religion itself, yet in science he laboured with much greater felicity; and, in clearing away the rubbish of jargon and mystery, gave to its edifice, solidity, weight, and beauty.

mentioned,

mentioned, it is by the adoption of a concise mode of speech, for the purpose of simplifying and abridging the reasoning;—that the true object of consideration is the limit of the ratio of the finite differences of quantities;—and that, in the expression $\frac{dx}{dz}\left(\frac{x'}{z'}\right)$ dx and dz are not quantities infinitely small, but are the symbols of an arbitrary notation, denoting a certain state of dx finite and dz finite. He illustrates his doctrine by drawing a tangent to a parabola of which the equation is $ax=y^2$; he finds two expressions for the two limits, one for the algebraic limit $\left(\frac{a}{2y}\right)$ and the other for the geometrical $\left(\frac{y}{s}\right)$, which he equates, and thence deduces the value of s (the subtangent) $=\frac{2y^2}{a}=2x$. The calculus he defines to consist in determining "*algébraiquement la limite d'un rapport de laquelle on a déjà l'expression en lignes, et à égaler ces deux limites, ce qui fait trouver une des lignes que l'on cherche.*"

The explanations given by Euler and D'Alembert, beyond all doubt, deserve much commendation; yet their method of considering the doctrine of fluxions is not completely satisfactory, but is objectionable on two grounds: first, that we have no clear and precise notion of the ratio of quantities, when those quantities are in their vanishing state, or cease to be quantities; secondly, the connexion and natural order of the sciences are interrupted, if we give a distinct and independent origin to that which, in fact, is a branch of analysis derived from the same common stock whence all the other branches are deduced *.

* Emerson, Stone, Simpson, Waring, &c. have published treatises on fluxions; in none of which, however, are the principles clearly laid down. To the latter author, the foundations of science were of small concernment; his ambition seems to have been to rear the edifice, and to superadd turret on turret. We endeavour in vain to trace simplicity, connection, or regularity, in the structure which he raised; it seems rather an huge pile of buildings, full of tortuous ways, steep and abrupt staircases, and obstructed passages. In the complete edition of the Works of Newton is a *liber singularis*, entitled *Geometria Fluxionum*, inserted by the editor. It begins with definitions which, mathematically, are of no use, for nothing can be deduced from them; and their terms are not appropriate to a science purely intellectual. The perusal of this tract has added so little to the clearness and precision of our ideas on its subject, that we must reprehend the "*nimiam diligentiam*" of the author, although we risk his censure, and may be styled "*homines incuriosi et inelegantes.*"

In a memoir inserted in the Berlin Acts for the year 1772, M. La Grange, who has made many important discoveries in pure analysis, and has contributed very largely to the present opulence of astronomical science, asserted that the theory of the developement of functions contained the true principles of the differential calculus, freed from all consideration of infinitely small quantities, or of limits. To establish this position more fully and particularly is the express object of the treatise at present before us; which has occasioned the unusually extensive preliminary observations which we have here submitted to the reader. We shall now endeavour, with as much brevity as possible, to give an idea of the learned author's method.

To begin with a definition of a function.

A function, of one or more quantities, is every expression in which these quantities enter after any manner whatever, combined or not with other quantities of given or invariable values, while the quantities of the function may receive all possible values.

fx designates a function of x; $f(x^2)$, $f(a+bx)$ functions of x^2 and $a+bx$.

Let, then, fx designate a function of any variable quantity x. If, instead of x, $x+i$ be substituted, i being any indeterminate quantity, fx becomes $f(x+i)$; which, by the method of series, may be expanded into this form: $fx+pi+qi^2+ri^3+$, &c.; in which, p, q, r, &c., the coefficients of the powers of i, are new functions of x, derived from the primitive function fx, and independent of the quantity i.

In this developement of $f(x+i)$, only whole and positive powers of i are supposed to be contained; which supposition is verified by expanding the several known functions: but, as this is only a proof by induction, and not exact and rigorous, M. La Grange demonstrates it *à priori* after the following manner:

'In the series resulting from the developement of $f(x+i)$, there is no fractional power of i, except particular values are given to x; for it is clear that the radicals of i can only proceed from the radicals contained in the primitive function fx; and moreover, that the substitution of $x+i$ for x can neither diminish nor augment the number of these radicals, nor change their nature; x and i being indeterminate quantities. Again; we know by the theory of equations, that every radical has as many different values as there are units in its exponent; and that, consequently, every irrational fraction has as many different values, as there are combinations of the different values of the radicals which it contains. If, then, the developement of the function $f(x+i)$ contains a term of the form $ui^{\frac{m}{n}}$, the function

tion fx will be necessarily irrational, and will consequently have a certain number of different values; which number will be the same for the function $f(x+i)$ as for its developement. This developement, however, being represented by the series $fx+pi+qi^2+$, &c. $+ui^{\frac{m}{n}}+$, &c., every value of fx will combine with every one of the n values of $\sqrt[n]{i^m}$; so that the function $f(x+i)$ developed shall have more different values than the same function not developed; which is absurd.'

This demonstration is general and rigorous, while x and i remain indeterminate, but will cease to be so when determinate values are given to x: for it would be possible that these values should destroy some radicals in fx, which nevertheless might subsist in $f(x+i)$.

Having thus established the general form of the developement of the function $f(x+i)$, the author proceeds to examine more particularly in what this developement consists, and what each of its terms signifies. He remarks that it is evident that, if in this function we seek what is independent of i, we have only to make $i=o$, which reduces $f(x+i)$ to fx; thus fx is the part of $f(x+i)$ which remains by making $i=o$; hence $fx=f(x+i)$, added to a quantity which vanishes when $i=o$, and which shall be multiplied or may be supposed to be multiplied by a positive power of i: but it has been demonstrated that, in the developement of $f(x+i)$, no fractional power of i can enter; therefore the quantity concerned can only be multiplied by some positive and whole power of i; it will then be of the form iP, P being a function of x and i, and which shall not be infinite when $i=o$.

Hence we have $f(x+i)=fx+iP \therefore P=\frac{f(x+i)-fx}{i}$; but P being a new function of x and i, we may in like manner separate what is independent of i, and does not vanish when $i=o$. Let then p be what P becomes when $i=o$, and p will be a function of x without i; hence, reasoning as before, $P=p+i\mathcal{Q} \therefore \mathcal{Q}=\frac{P-p}{i}$, and so on for $\mathcal{Q}$, &c.

Hence $f(x+i)=fx+iP$, $P=p+i\mathcal{Q}$, $\mathcal{Q}=q+iR$, &c. and substituting $f(x+i)=fx+iP=fx+ip+i^2\mathcal{Q}=fx+ip+i^2q+i^3R=fx+ip+i^2q+i^3r+$, &c.

Example; let $fx=\frac{1}{x} \therefore f(x+i)=\frac{1}{x+i} \therefore iP=\frac{1}{x+i}-\frac{1}{x}=\frac{-i}{x.x+i}$ and $P=\frac{-1}{x.x+i} \therefore p=-\frac{1}{x^2}$ and $i\mathcal{Q}=Pp=-$

$\frac{1}{x.x+i}+\frac{1}{x^2}=\frac{i}{x^2.x+i}$, and therefore $\mathfrak{Q}=\frac{1}{x^2.x+i}$ and $q=\frac{\mathfrak{Q}}{x^3}$ and so on.

Hence $\frac{1}{x+i}=\frac{1}{x}-\frac{i}{x^2}+\frac{i^2}{x^3}-\frac{i^3}{x^4}+$, &c.

After some other examples, M. La Grange demonstrates this important theorem, that, in the series $fx+pi+qi^2+$, &c. i may always be taken sufficiently small, so that any term whatever shall be greater than the sum of all the succeeding terms:—but we hasten to the commodious form which he assigns to the function $f(x+i)$; and to the manner in which he shews how, in the series $fx+pi+qi^2+$, &c. the derived functions p, q, r, &c. depend on the primitive function fx. To obtain this end, suppose the indeterminate quantity x to become $x+o$, o being an indeterminate quantity and independent of i; then $f(x+i)$ becomes $f(x+o+i)$; and it is clear that the same result will be obtained by putting in $f(x+i)$ $i+o$ for i; so then the result should be the same, whether in the series $fx+pi+qi^2+$ &c. $i+o$ be substituted for i, or $x+o$ for x.

First put $i+o$ for i: then there results

$$fx+p(i+o)+q(i+o)^2+r(i+o)^3+, \text{ &c.}$$

or; developing the powers of $(i+o)$, and only writing the first two terms of each power, since their comparison will suffice for the determinations required;

$$fx+pi+qi^2+ri^3+, \text{ &c.}$$
$$+po+2qio+3ri^2o+, \text{ &c.}$$

Secondly, put $x+o$ for x; then fx becomes $fx+f'xo$, p becomes $p+p'o+$, &c., q becomes $q+q'o+$, &c. and, only considering in the developement the terms which contain the first power of o, the formula $fx+pi+$, &c. becomes

$$fx+pi+qi^2+ri^3+, \text{ &c.}$$
$$+f'xo+p'io+q'i^2o+, \text{ &c.}$$

but, since the two results ought to be identical, whatever are the values of i and o; by comparing the terms affected with o, io, i^2o, &c. we have $p=f'x$, $2q=p'$, $3r=q'$, $4s=r'$, &c. Now in the same manner as $f'x$ is the first function derived from fx, is p' the first function derived from p, q' the first function derived from q, and so on. Then, if, for the sake of greater simplicity and uniformity, $f'x$ be made to denote the first function derived from fx, $f''x$ the first function derived from $f'x$, &c. we shall have $p=f'x$; and thence $p'=f''x$, $q=\frac{p'}{2}=\frac{f''x}{2}$ therefore $q'=\frac{f'''x}{2}$ and $r=\frac{q'}{3}=\frac{f'''x}{2.3}$ and so on, substi-

substituting these values in the developement, we have

$$f(x+i)=fx+if'x+\frac{i^2}{2}f''x+\frac{i^3}{2.3}f'''x, \text{ \&c.}$$

which expression has the advantage of shewing how all the terms of the series depend on one another; and, above all, how, knowing the first function derived from any primitive function, we may form all the derived functions which the series contains.

Example. Let $fx=x^m$ $\therefore f(x+i)+(x+i)^m$: but it is easy to demonstrate that the first two terms of the binomial $(x+i)$ are $x^m+mx^{m-1}i$, whether m be whole or fractional, positive or negative; so that we have $f'x=mx^{m-1}$; hence we deduce $f''x=m(m-1)x^{m-2}$ $f'''x=m(m-1)(m-2)x^{m-3}$; and so on:—therefore, $(x+i)^m=x^m+mx^{m-1}i+\frac{m(m-1)}{2}xi+\frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{2.3}x^{m-3}i^3$, &c. the known formula of the binomial theorem which is thus demonstrated for all values of m.

M. La Grange applies his method to the demonstration of other theorems. He thus assigns the series for a^x, for $\log. x$, for the sine and cosine of an arc x; and afterward he shews that the prime functions of such quantities as $apqr$, $\frac{ap}{q}$ (a being constant, p, q, r, simple functions of x) to be $ap'qr+aq'pr+ar'pq$, and $\frac{ap'}{q}-\frac{apq'}{q^2}$.

The series $fx+if'x+\frac{i^2}{2}f''x+$, &c. which represents the developement of $f(x+i)$, we have observed, can only be formed by giving a particular and determinate value to x, which makes some radical to disappear in fx, and in its derived functions. M. La Grange examines the circumstances under which this happens; and the result of his examination is, that the series for the developement of $f(x+i)$ is legitimate when the radical disappears because the quantity into which it is multiplied becomes o: but that the series is not legitimate when the radical disappears because itself becomes o. For instance;

Let $fx=(x-a)\sqrt{x-b}$, if $x=a$ $fx=o$: but $f'x=\sqrt{x-b}+\frac{(x-a)}{2\sqrt{x-b}}$, when $x=a$, $f'x$ becomes $\sqrt{a-b}$: but, if in $fx=$

$(x-a)\sqrt{x-b}$, $x=b$ (or radical itself is equal to o) then $fx=o$ and $f'x=\sqrt{x-b}+\frac{(x-a)}{2\sqrt{x-b}}=\sqrt{b-b}+\frac{(b-a)}{2\sqrt{b-b}}=$ $\frac{}{}$, likewise $f''x=\frac{}{}$, &c.; in which case the series $fx+if'x$ $+$, &c is faulty.

The nature and extent of our publication oblige us to pass over much curious and important matter: but we hope that this concise account of the subject and conduct of the work will be sufficient to awaken the curiosity of our mathematical readers.

We cannot leave the first part, however, without mentioning that in it is demonstrated a theorem which is remarkable, according to its inventor, for its simplicity and generality. It is this;—let u be an unknown quantity, but contained between the limits of o and x; then every function of x and of other quantities may be successively developed according to the powers of x, in the following manner:

$$fx=f.+xf'u$$
$$=f.+xf'.+\frac{x^2}{2}f''u$$
$$=f.+xf'.+\frac{x^2}{2}f''+\frac{x^3}{2.3}f'''u$$
$$=f.+,\text{ &c.}+,\text{ &c.}$$

the quantities $f.$, $f'.$, $f''.$, f''', &c. being the values of the function fx, and its derivatives $f'x$, $f''x$, &c. when x is made $=o$.

In the second part, M. La Grange applies his theory to Geometry and Mechanics *. The common and known methods in the fluxionary and differential calculus for determining tangents, radii of curvature, &c. are excellent, if we regard their simplicity and generality, but are deficient in that rigour of proof for which the antient demonstrations are celebrated. Such a deficiency in the theory of fluxions is supplied by that of functions; and the problems of tangents, of the curves of contact and osculation, are in this work placed under a very perspicuous point of view, and demonstrated rigorously. The proofs of these problems depend on a form shewn in the first part to belong to the developement of $f(x+i)$; namely; $fx+if'x+\frac{i^2}{2}f''x+\frac{i^3}{2.3}f'''$ $(x+j)$ j being an indeterminate quantity, but contained between the limits of o and i;—and on the theorem previously mentioned by us, in which it is proved

* The English word mechanics does not convey to us the same idea which belongs to *la mécanique*.

that

that i may always be taken sufficiently small, so that any term shall be greater than the sum of all the preceding terms.

The problems of the maxima and minima of quantities are demonstrated in a most satisfactory manner. It is shewn that, if the function fx be a maximum, or minimum, the prime function $f'x$ must $= o$; and that $f''x$ must be $< o$ in case of a maximum, or $> o$, in the case of a minimum: but that, if $f'x = o$, $f'''x$ likewise $= o$, and $f''''x$ is $< o$ or $> o$, according as the quantity is a maximum or minimum *; in general, that, if the derived function of any even order disappear, the function of the uneven order following disappears likewise, and the function of the succeeding even order is negative for the maximum and positive for the minimum.

The author extends his theory to the determination of questions relative to curves of double curvature, and of those problems which belong to that branch of analysis called "*Calcul des Variations*," first introduced by John Bernouilli in the solution of his famous problem of the curve of quickest descent, (*brachystochrone*,) and since perfected by Euler and the author of the present work †.

In the application of the theory of functions to mechanics, the space is considered as a function of the time, and is represented by the equation $x = ft$; hence at the end of a time $(t+\theta)$ the space described will be $f(t+\theta) - ft$; or, by the form for the developement of functions, $\theta f't + \frac{\theta^2}{2} f''t + \frac{\theta^3}{2.3} f'''(t+\lambda\theta)$ λ being an unknown coefficient, the value of which is comprised between o and i. Now in this form the first term represents uniform motion, $f't$ the relation of the space and time being the measure of that which is called Velocity; the second term

* To the minds of such of our readers as are possessed of the fluxional method, its affinity with that of functions will be readily suggested. In all other cases, besides the one of the maxima, a similarity of expression may be traced; thus if $y = fx$ be equation to the curve, it is demonstrated by M. La Grange that the values of subnormal, subtangent, and radices of curvature are—$yy' \frac{y}{y'}$, and $\frac{(1+y'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{y''}$ in fluxions, the values of these lines are $\frac{yy'}{x'}$, $\frac{yx'}{y'}$ and $\frac{(x'^2+y'^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{x'y''}$.

† See Euler's *Methodus inveniendi lineas curvas maximi, minimive, proprietate gaudentes; sive solutio problematis is operimetrici latissimo sensu accepti.*—Likewise the Turin Memoirs for the years 1760 and 1761.

represents motion uniformly accelerated where the quantity $\frac{f''t}{2}$ represents the accelerating force; the third term represents the total of the other motions; now θ may be taken so small that the motion composed of the motions represented by the first two terms shall approach nearer to the true motion, than any other motion can, composed of an uniform motion and a motion uniformly accelerated.

From the developement of the function $f(t+\theta)$, it appears that, in any rectilinear motion where the space described is a given function of the time, the prime function of this function will represent the velocity, and the second function the accelerating force in any instant: whence it appears that the prime and second functions naturally present themselves in mechanics, where they have a determinate value and signification; and it is this circumstance which induced Newton to establish fluxions on the consideration of motion.

In the latter part of his work, M. La Grange points out the true source of the error into which Newton fell, in the first edition of his Principia, resolving the third problem of the second volume. John Bernouilli discovered the solution as given by Newton to be faulty, by comparing it with that resulting from the differential calculus; Nicholas Bernouilli ascribed the cause of the error to the assumption of the 3d term of the converging series, which represents the ordinate of the given curve, instead of the second fluxion of the ordinate; and D'Alembert, noticing this error, takes occasion thence to urge the necessity of attending to the difference between *polygonal* and rigorous curves.

Here we must finish our abstract. To give a formal opinion of the work is perhaps unnecessary; its merit may be partly discerned from the extracts which we have exhibited; and our sentiments may be inferred from the large portion of the Review which we have devoted to its consideration. In questions of real science, national animosity should cease, or be supplied by a generous and dignifying emulation. To be said to rival a De la Place and a De la Grange is no mean praise; men who, by their genius and their labours, have given to France trophies more durable and more glorious than those of any warrior and conqueror.

It has been said that the true principles of any invention are most satisfactorily and truly explained by the inventors themselves; yet it is at the distance of more than an hundred years from the discovery of the fluxionary calculus, that its principles are first clearly and rigorously established. It has been reserved for the mathematicians of these days, to effect what was denied

denied to a Newton * and a Leibnitz; and to supply to their theory that evidence and exactness, the want of which makes us attribute its invention rather to the felicity of the times in which they lived, than to the excellence of their genius;—to esteem it not *pro partu ingenii*, but *pro partu temporis*.

ART. II. *Discours sur la Littérature*, &c. *i. e.* A Discourse on Literature, delivered in the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Berlin, Aug. 9th, 1798. By the Marquis (formerly the Chevalier) DE BOUFFLERS. 8vo. pp. 77. Berlin. 1798. London, Elmsley and Co., and De Boffe.

THIS is a well-written vindication of literature, and literary men, from censures which the author tells us he has frequently heard thrown out against them. In a production of this nature, novelty cannot be expected: but the language is correct and elegant, and we feel disposed to question few of the author's opinions, except it be his great veneration for unknown antiquity. He hints at a possibility that Homer and Pindar might have been preceded by writers who excelled them, as much as those poets are superior to their successors. To us, this appears a very improbable conjecture. The names, if not the fragments, of such writers must have been preserved, among a people who retained the works of Homer during a long period, by oral tradition alone. The very simplicity and energy of Homer bespeak an original writer: for the depravation of taste commonly proceeds, in men of talents, from a fear of the imputation of plagiarism. A writer, who first undertakes a certain subject, uses the riches of nature without seeking to cast them in a new mould:—he expresses, in the most obvious and the most forcible terms, the idea which he would convey to his reader:—but his successor must either pass for a copyist, or he must find some other way of imparting the same idea; and the most natural expressions being preoccupied, he is forced to use those which are less obvious and less impressive. Hence the perpetual tendency of poetical language to become obscure and enigmatical.

In the course of this publication, the different branches of literature are characterized with distinctness, and not without elegance of expression. We shall extract, as an example, what the author says of the lighter species of poetry; as we

* A learned geometrician appears to allude to Newton and his discovery in the following passage: "*Et sane, ut magnus ille vir sit, qui obscura et involuta arcana arte detegit; major tamen esse videbitur, si qui detexit, ea noverit certâ ratione demonstrare.*"

think that he offers hints which may be serviceable to some of our present candidates for poetical fame.

'Respecting this light versification, the ease of which seems to constitute its whole merit, experience will always apprize the man of talents that there is no class of them, however little fame it may afford, which does not present difficulties. The more diminutive objects are, the more narrowly are they examined; as they are more within the cognizance of all, the greater is the number of judges; and in such a case, the more numerous the judges, the more severe are their decisions, because this extensive tribunal is in a great measure composed of rivals, who reserve their indulgence for their own productions. Great works demand more force, the smaller more care. Antiquity, among its many master-pieces, may have left us a *Cameo*, which has perhaps required as long a time for its completion, as a colossal statue. Much incorrectness may be overlooked in great attempts, but, in the smaller kinds, no fault is trifling. In vain should we reckon on facility; it assists in composition, but it does not create. It advances more quickly than labour, but it does not proceed so far. Whatever may be the object, facility can but at most sketch the outlines with elegance, and labour alone can imprint on it the seal of perfection. Facility, if we credit experience too frequently repeated, is often more dangerous than useful. Do we aspire to glory? Facility excites expectations which it cannot fulfil, and engages us in situations in which it cannot support us. On the contrary, if we wish only for amusement, it leads us through ways which are delightful at first view, which were perhaps originally struck out by genius, but which have since become so much the resort of mediocrity, that they are grown impassable, and that the new visitors are obliged to drag themselves through mud, where the first roved among myrtles and roses.'

In speaking of translation, the author says, 'a good book is a creation; a good translation is a resurrection.'

The difficult question of taste is introduced, but is not discussed with much accuracy. The standard of taste is referred to general consent: but the objections to this criterion have not been considered. Taste, from its nature, cannot be an universal quality. It is the fruit of a happy temperament, and of long study, in a few individuals; their opinions may be respected, admitted, and even understood, by readers in general: but the impressions, from which those decisions result, are confined to a small number of persons. One may comprehend, and assent to the reasons assigned by, a critic for preferring Homer to Virgil, without being sufficiently acquainted with the writings of those authors, to form an opinion of his own. Other readers may judge in the same manner. Thus the general consent may be obtained, to a position on which the generality of readers are not qualified to decide; and this common suffrage, founded in reality on the accidental popularity of

of a single writer, becomes, according to our author, the rule of taste.

The truth seems to be, that correct taste is the quality of some individuals; and that common readers rather derive opinions than taste from them.

In the second part of the discourse, the author has undertaken to shew that eminence in literature is necessarily connected with purity of morals; and it must be confessed that he has placed the arguments for this desirable opinion in a very pleasing light. It is a persuasion particularly adapted to young writers, and which can boast the authority of Milton in more than one passage; thus,

> "Spare fast, that oft' with Gods doth diet,
> And hears the Muses in a ring,
> Ay round about Jove's temple sing."

In speaking of the Epic poet, in one of his Latin compositions, he describes his mode of life in these terms:

> "*Stet pro fagineo pellucida lympha catillo,*
> *Sobriaque è puro pocula fonte bibat.*
> *Additur huic scelerisque vacans, et casta juventus.*
> *Et rigidi mores, et sine labe manus.*"

Even the severe Milton, however, admitted that excellence in lighter and less serious works was not incompatible with a more indulgent regimen.

The succeeding part of the pamphlet, in which the author examines the reproaches of inutility, conceit, flattery, &c. sometimes cast on men of letters, is written with great rapidity; indeed it requires not much enlargement, for the faults charged on literary men as a body are those of humanity, not of a profession. Those of our readers, however, into whose hands this performance may fall, will doubtless think themselves obliged to the author for his polished essay; even in those passages in which they will only find ideas reflected back to them, that must have been previously familiar to their minds. Few can be expected to write for the fastidious part of the learned world exclusively, because few are disposed voluntarily to contract their audience. We have no doubt that the Marquis will obtain the suffrage of *Amateurs* in general.

ART. III. *Théâtre de l'Hermitage*, &c. *i. e.* The Hermitage-Theatre of Catherine II. Empress of Russia. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris, 1799. London, De Boffe.

THESE volumes consist of dramatic pieces composed by the late Empress herself, by persons of her court, and by some foreign Ministers. They were originally written in French,

and were performed by a company of French comedians in the service of her Imperial majesty at her private theatre, in a part of the palace at Petersburg called *The Hermitage*, in the years 1787 and 1788. An advertisement, prefixed to the first volume by the editor, informs us that

'Catherine, on her return from the Crimea in 1787, wishing to have some little dramas represented at her Hermitage, written on *proverbs*, (then much in fashion,) which had never been performed elsewhere, engaged many distinguished persons who had followed her into Tartary, to write them; and in order to encourage by example, she herself produced several with great rapidity. An excellent company of comedians, among whom were the celebrated *Aufrêne*, and *Fastier*, the disciple of Préville, exhibited these dramas to a select audience. The contributors to these pieces were the Empress; the Count *de Cobentzel*, Ambassador from the Emperor; M. *Segur*, Minister from France; the Prince *de Ligne*, an Austrian General; *Alexander Mononof*, favourite of the Empress; Count *Strogonof*, Senator; *Ivan Schovalof*, Great Chamberlain; *D'Estat*, a Frenchman, attached to the Imperial Cabinet; and the daughter of *Aufrêne*.'—

'It seems, in reading some of the proverbs written by the Empress, where the characters appear over-charged, and the ridicule flat, that they allude to circumstances known only in that court, which the editor is unable to explain.'

We shall give the title and tendency of each of these pieces, which are in general short, and in prose. The first volume contains:

1. *Le Tracassier*, or the Meddling-body, in one act; written by the Empress. The principal character is well sustained; and there are two or three scenes in which unprovoked malice is well detailed.

2. *Crispin turned Duenna*, a comedy in three acts, by M. *Segur*. We here discover some ingenuity in the plot and characters, but in several instances they are unnatural. We are not told how such a detestable worthless wretch as *Marphurio* became guardian to so rich and amiable a ward as *Henriette*.

3. *The rage for* (dramatized) *Proverbs*;—by the Empress. This comedy has more humour, satire, and knowlege of the world, than the preceding two pieces. Besides ridiculing the passion for *proverbial* dramas, all the affectations of modern fine ladies are exposed, and imitated by some of the French actors, then at the court of Petersburg, who were famous for mimicry; or what we call *taking off*.

An old aunt, in educating a young niece, just come out of the country, and ignorant of the most fashionable qualifications of a fine lady, initiates her in the mysteries of acquiring notice, and of alarming and rendering uncomfortable every company in which she appears. The young lady is very handsome, and has

has many admirers, who visit the aunt, in order to offer their hand to the niece: who drives them all away by her affectation. In one scene, she receives a lesson of behaviour from the aunt, and goes through an exercise, performing all the evolutions in the usual formula of *airs* and *graces*. In another, she exhibits in public: that is, before three or four lovers, on a visit of courtship; and after much distortion of look, language, and carriage, on one of the gentlemen offering to kiss her hand, she screams, and faints away. This occasions such terror, bustle, and confusion, that the lovers drop off one by one, and leave the aunt and young lady with only the servants to admire her talents and the progress which she had made in *fine-ladyism*.

As a specimen of Imperial writing, and of acquaintance with the follies of high-life, we shall translate a scene of this little drama, for the gratification of our English readers.

'Scene III. The Aunt and her Niece.

Aunt. Patty (the young lady's maid) tells me that you have had a bad night. What has been the matter?

Niece. The fleas have kept me awake.

A. These are things which young ladies must never mention before company.

N. I speak of things just as they are; I have not had a wink of sleep all night.

A. One would not suppose by your eyes that you had not slept. I should have thought, from the lively way in which you roll them about, that you had rested vey well. You don't know how to make the most of a bad night.

N. Perhaps not, aunt.

A. A pretty young lady, when she has slept ill, does not look so sprightly.

N. How should she look, then?

A. Your looks would contradict your words.

N. But tell me, aunt, what should she do?

A. She should look melancholy, and with a languishing air.

N. Why?

A. What a question! Why? because she would become more interesting. She would be pitied, and would gain a thousand little attentions, which she could never acquire by looking chearful.

N. Oh, I understand you: I shall comply with your wish, and am glad to have learned so much to-day. Is that right? (assuming a dejected air.)

A. Very well. If you should feel any pain, however slight, be sure to faint away: but remember, that the first rule in fainting is never to do it when you are alone, but before as much company as possible: which will give you great importance in society.

N. Why these are things, aunt, of which I never heard before!

A. There are still other pretty habits, which agree perfectly with a delicate state of health. You have not strength, for example, to pronounce certain words; such as Can't, Bath, Monstrous—you

should say *kaint*, *haith*, *mossous*, which is much more delicate. Do you understand me, my dear?

N. Yes, aunt.

A. When you sit down to dinner or supper, you must always complain of want of appetite, and a weak stomach: but you must not eat the less for that: you have only to be nice and dainty. You comprehend me?

N. Yes, aunt, very well.

A. In conversation, take care to make frequent use of superlatives; as frightful! hideous! horrible! shocking! There are likewise things of which you must affect to be doatingly fond: as cats, dogs, birds, squirrels; and others of which you must be as much afraid, without knowing why: a mouse, for instance, will make you die with fright; and a frog, or a snail, must tear your nerves to pieces.

N. Why so, aunt?

A. You will not feel it; but you must be afraid that you *shall* feel it. I reveal to you, my dear, the secrets of the art; and I promise you that, in a little time, by following my advice, you will become a most accomplished girl;—and, my dear child, you shall not want for counsel.

N. Oh, as for counsel, every body is eager to give it to me, since I came hither.

A. Every body! and pray who is every body?

N. One says, I must do *so*; and another, *so*.

A. Poh, poh, child, you must not mind every body:—but tell me, if you please, who it is that takes the liberty to give you this advice?

N. Who? Every one that comes to the house.—Mr. Jeunet, Mr. Vieuteau, Patty, and many others.

A. What advice can Mr. Jeunet give you?

N. Oh! he promises me, if I follow his advice, that I shall be perfect, and quite different from the rest of my sex; of whom he speaks very ill,—and of you, aunt, among the rest.

A. And what does he pretend to say of me?

N. He says that you are too affected; that you often promise what you cannot perform, and seldom know yourself what you say.

A. This man is very abusive; you must not mind what he says; he is a rattle,—and Mr. Vieutau, what does he say?

N. He says, that he never saw an ugly woman in his life; young or old, in his eyes, all women are charming; and you are included, aunt, among these perfect beings.

A. His opinion of us is very flattering, certainly:—but what advice does he give you?

N. To be gentle, amiable, without affectation, even-tempered, and never to speak too loudly nor too lofty.

A. This is very good advice, but difficult to follow.

N. For my part, aunt, to say the truth, I know nothing of all this; it seems as if I never should be any thing but what I am.

A. You seem out of humour to-day, and more tired than ordinary.

N. Indeed I am. It is natural to be tired when one has not what one wishes.

A. Why

A. Why what do you wish?

N. Oh, you would certainly scold me if you knew.

A. But what is it?

N. You'll be angry.

A. No, no, pray tell me.

N. Well then, I would fain be yonder, where I was before.

A. Where? in the village?

N. Yes, aunt.

A. But when you were in the village, I was told that you passionately wished to be here?

N. That's true.

A. How comes it that you have so soon changed your mind?

N. I beg your pardon; I am always of the same mind.

A. I have not the least notion what you mean. You longed to be in town, and would now be in the country; you are in contradiction with yourself..

N. Not at all, aunt.

A. How can you make these two opinions agree?

N. It is not at all difficult.

A. How will you go to work?

N. You'll be out of humour, aunt.

A. No, no, I promise you.

N. Well then. You must know, that I am naturally tired of the place where I am, and would always be where I am not.

A. You would do well, niece, to resist this natural infirmity.

N. Nay, I'll tell you farther—

A. What?

N. I always wish for what I have not; and as soon as I have it, I think no more about it.

A. With such a disposition, child, you never can be happy as long as you live. I advise you — — —

N. Ah! now we shall have a shower of advice!

A. Advice is necessary for you.

N. It seems to me as if advice resembled a reprimand as much as two drops of water resemble each other.

A. It is a medicine.

N. Oh, I never swallow a medicine without making ugly faces; I saw myself in the glass when I was taking one, the other day, and I looked frightfully.

A. But does Patty's advice turn your stomach?

N. Not at all, my dear aunt; for she tells me to let things go how they will, and try to divert myself as well as I can.'

4. We now come to the next play, entitled *The Jealous Valencian*, a *Proverb*, in two acts, by M. *D'Estat.*

The plot of this piece resembles that of *the Padlock*, and of many other plays and farces on similar plans. The first act is spirited, and the dialogue is enlivened with wit and humour; the second, however, is neither so lively nor so natural as the first. Some improbabilities disgrace the plot; and the denoue-

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A speech in favour of clemency seems the best in this play. It is put into the mouth of the consort of a prince lately arrived at the sovereignty by the decease of his grandfather, against whose succession the son of a younger branch of the family had rebelled, and been taken prisoner after a defeat. It is debated in council in what manner to treat the captive insurgent; and it being proposed that he should immediately be brought to trial, the princess asks his accusers whether the vanquished prince *Vadim* had not been sufficiently punished by the failure of his enterprise, and the general blame which he had incurred? *Rurick*, the reigning prince, exclaims:

'Oh! *Evinda*, how grateful it is to my soul to discover in thee, on all occasions, such benign sentiments of clemency and humanity!

'*Evinda.* Thou, my beloved Lord, art my model: who only seest in an offending mortal, a being born with passions, vices, and infirmities. Every one has not the vigour of mind which is requisite to mould his actions and conduct to existing times and circumstances. Many are guilty of crimes more from levity and want of reflection, than from corruption of heart. *Vadim* is young; he was brought up in the court of his grandfather, and was surrounded by flatterers, who inflamed his soul with pride, and excited him to daring deeds. The race of Slavonian princes is courageous.... Their blood, my Lord, flows in your veins... *Vadim* is your cousin... The people adore clemency... Pardon, my Lord, the liberty which I take in this freedom of speech. You love truth, and draw it from others by gentle manners and affability. You detest audacity, and know how to chastise it, when necessary.'

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Art. IV. *Louis* XV. *et Louis* XVI. *i. e.* The Reign of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. By Anthony Fantin-Desodoards, French Citizen. 5 Vols. 8vo. pp. 400 in each. Paris. 1798. Imported by De Boffe, London.

Two contributions of this author to the history of the French Revolution have already been noticed by us, in vol. xxiii. p. 557. and vol. xxvii. p. 498. He now undertakes the preliminary narrative of the reigns of Louis XV. and XVI; and the time is but just arrived for accomplishing that task with propriety. The important consequences, which were to flow from the anti-christian heresy of Voltaire and his coadjutors, were not likely to forcibly impress any contemporary historian. Still less was the doctrine of Quesnay, concerning the exclusive expediency of a land-tax, apparently pregnant with mighty political innovations. It is only since the eventual preponderance of the sects founded by those men, that their historical importance can be properly appreciated. The conflicts about Jansenism, between Louis XV. and his parliaments, would now be despised by the narrator, had they not offered models and precedents of resistance to those parliaments of Louis XVI. which accomplished the convocation of the States General, by their courageous remonstrances. Thus it happens that posterity continually views even the past with an altered eye; dropping the facts which are insignificant to its present condition, and rummaging the lowest vaults of obscurity for those which have occasioned the extant phænomena.

Vol. I. p. 11. The minority of Louis XV. is chiefly remarkable for the ascendancy enjoyed by the Duke of Orleans, in virtue of his hereditary rank; and for the attempts made by him to extend and strengthen this authority by means of the parliaments. Many hereditary hatreds (against the Polignacs, for instance,) appear to have been founded during his regency, which continued still to operate during the recent revolution. The Duke of Orleans had assumed the regency in right of his birth, and in express opposition to the will of Louis XIV., which he employed the parliament of Paris to annul; and in return, he restored to the parliament, by a declaration of 15th Dec. 1715, the right of remonstrance previously to the registration of the edicts of the chief magistrate. His regency had a character of usurpation; and, like most other usurpers, he

he increased the privileges of the subject, in order to strengthen his authority against the original sovereign.

P. 20. A proposal to assemble the States General was made in 1717, at the time of the financial difficulties which were so unsuccessfully combated by the schemer *Law:* it was espoused by the selfish patriotism of the Duke of Orleans, but was withstood by the principal nobility.

P. 26. To Lord Stair is ascribed a direct attempt against the life of the Pretender, by hiring assassins. Many other particulars, such as the alledged offer of Gibraltar to the Spaniards, p. 32, merit the notice of English annalists.

In imitation of the Abbé Raynal, who intersperses his history with eloquent seditious diatribes, this author introduces bold appeals to the liberal passions, and has addressed (p. 148) the Spanish nation in a manner less favorable to the passive tranquillity of a timid superstition, than to the turbulent independence of reasoning energy. By such declamations, it is no doubt hoped to prepare the people of Spain for accepting one of those nominally free constitutions, which the French republic usually confers on its conquered provinces. The Spanish churches will afford a rich booty, and the Spanish Indies a rich tribute.

This author ascribes to the private theatricals introduced by the Marchioness of Pompadour, that corruption of female manners and that boldness of the sex which were so conspicuous in France before the revolution; and which, by rendering husbands indifferent to their pretended families and to their domestic comforts, have been so powerful a cause of the general desertion of their hearths and altars by the leading men of France.

P. 158, vol. 2. The administration of Machault is noticed with merited attention. This minister was the first author of a plan for subjecting the ecclesiastical property of France to taxation by the state. His scheme was to sequester, on the deaths of the incumbents, half of the income of every living which produced more than a given salary to the clergyman. A cry of danger to the church, which intimidated the piety of the king, excited successful opposition to this projected profanation; and Machault was compelled to resign: but his character stood so high in the opinion of the prince, afterward Louis XVI., that the first attempt of this monarch to nominate a minister of his own was made in favor of Machault. The infidels took advantage of the controversy excited by this project, and circulated bitter attacks on church power, church arrogance, and church avarice.

should say *kaint*, *baith*, *mossous*, which is much more delicate. Do you understand me, my dear?

N. Yes, aunt.

A. When you sit down to dinner or supper, you must always complain of want of appetite, and a weak stomach: but you must not eat the less for that: you have only to be nice and dainty. You comprehend me?

N. Yes, aunt, very well.

A. In conversation, take care to make frequent use of superlatives; as frightful! hideous! horrible! shocking! There are likewise things of which you must affect to be doatingly fond: as cats, dogs, birds, squirrels; and others of which you must be as much afraid, without knowing why: a mouse, for instance, will make you die with fright; and a frog, or a snail, must tear your nerves to pieces.

N. Why so, aunt?

A. You will not feel it; but you must be afraid that you *shall* feel it. I reveal to you, my dear, the secrets of the art; and I promise you that, in a little time, by following my advice, you will become a most accomplished girl;—and, my dear child, you shall not want for counsel.

N. Oh, as for counsel, every body is eager to give it to me, since I came hither.

A. Every body! and pray who is every body?

N. One says, I must do *so*; and another, *so*.

A. Poh, poh, child, you must not mind every body:—but tell me, if you please, who it is that takes the liberty to give you this advice?

N. Who? Every one that comes to the house—Mr. Jeunet, Mr. Vieuteau, Patty, and many others.

A. What advice can Mr. Jeunet give you?

N. Oh! he promises me, if I follow his advice, that I shall be perfect, and quite different from the rest of my sex; of whom he speaks very ill,—and of you, aunt, among the rest.

A. And what does he pretend to say of me?

N. He says that you are too affected; that you often promise what you cannot perform, and seldom know yourself what you say.

A. This man is very abusive; you must not mind what he says; he is a rattle,—and Mr. Vieutau, what does he say?

N. He says, that he never saw an ugly woman in his life; young or old, in his eyes, all women are charming; and you are included, aunt, among these perfect beings.

A. His opinion of us is very flattering, certainly:—but what advice does he give you?

N. To be gentle, amiable, without affectation, even-tempered, and never to speak too loudly nor too lofty.

A. This is very good advice, but difficult to follow.

N. For my part, aunt, to say the truth, I know nothing of all this; it seems as if I never should be any thing but what I am.

A. You seem out of humour to-day, and more tired than ordinary.

N. Indeed I am. It is natural to be tired when one has not what one wishes.

A. Why

A. Why what do you wish?

N. Oh, you would certainly scold me if you knew.

A. But what is it?

N. You'll be angry.

A. No, no, pray tell me.

N. Well then, I would fain be yonder, where I was before.

A. Where? in the village?

N. Yes, aunt.

A. But when you were in the village, I was told that you passionately wished to be here?

N. That's true.

A. How comes it that you have so soon changed your mind?

N. I beg your pardon; I am always of the same mind.

A. I have not the least notion what you mean. You longed to be in town, and would now be in the country; you are in contradiction with yourself.

N. Not at all, aunt.

A. How can you make these two opinions agree?

N. It is not at all difficult.

A. How will you go to work?

N. You'll be out of humour, aunt.

A. No, no, I promise you.

N. Well then. You must know, that I am naturally tired of the place where I am, and would always be where I am not.

A. You would do well, niece, to resist this natural infirmity.

N. Nay, I'll tell you farther—

A. What?

N. I always wish for what I have not; and as soon as I have it, I think no more about it.

A. With such a disposition, child, you never can be happy as long as you live. I advise you — — —

N. Ah! now we shall have a shower of advice!

A. Advice is necessary for you.

N. It seems to me as if advice resembled a reprimand as much as two drops of water resemble each other.

A. It is a medicine.

N. Oh, I never swallow a medicine without making ugly faces; I saw myself in the glass when I was taking one, the other day, and I looked frightfully.

A. But does Patty's advice turn your stomach?

N. Not at all, my dear aunt; for she tells me to let things go how they will, and try to divert myself as well as I can.'

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This play concludes the collection; and from the brief analysis and descriptions which we have given, we think that our readers will entertain sentiments by no means unfavorable to these *Imperial Recreations.*

Art. IV. *Louis* XV. *et Louis* XVI. *i. e.* The Reign of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. By Anthony Fantin-Desodoards, French Citizen. 5 Vols. 8vo. pp. 400 in each. Paris. 1798. Imported by De Boffe, London.

Two contributions of this author to the history of the French Revolution have already been noticed by us, in vol. xxiii. p. 557. and vol. xxvii. p. 498. He now undertakes the preliminary narrative of the reigns of Louis XV. and XVI; and the time is but just arrived for accomplishing that task with propriety. The important consequences, which were to flow from the anti-christian heresy of Voltaire and his coadjutors, were not likely to forcibly impress any contemporary historian. Still less was the doctrine of Quesnay, concerning the exclusive expediency of a land-tax, apparently pregnant with mighty political innovations. It is only since the eventual preponderance of the sects founded by those men, that their historical importance can be properly appreciated. The conflicts about Jansenism, between Louis XV. and his parliaments, would now be despised by the narrator, had they not offered models and precedents of resistance to those parliaments of Louis XVI. which accomplished the convocation of the States General, by their courageous remonstrances. Thus it happens that posterity continually views even the past with an altered eye; dropping the facts which are insignificant to its present condition, and rummaging the lowest vaults of obscurity for those which have occasioned the extant phænomena.

Vol. I. p. 11. The minority of Louis XV. is chiefly remarkable for the ascendancy enjoyed by the Duke of Orleans, in virtue of his hereditary rank; and for the attempts made by him to extend and strengthen this authority by means of the parliaments. Many hereditary hatreds (against the Polignacs, for instance,) appear to have been founded during his regency, which continued still to operate during the recent revolution. The Duke of Orleans had assumed the regency in right of his birth, and in express opposition to the will of Louis XIV., which he employed the parliament of Paris to annul; and in return, he restored to the parliament, by a declaration of 15th Dec. 1715, the right of remonstrance previously to the registration of the edicts of the chief magistrate. His regency had a character of usurpation; and, like most other usurpers, he

he increased the privileges of the subject, in order to strengthen his authority against the original sovereign.

P. 20. A proposal to assemble the States General was made in 1717, at the time of the financial difficulties which were so unsuccessfully combated by the schemer *Law:* it was espoused by the selfish patriotism of the Duke of Orleans, but was withstood by the principal nobility.

P. 26. To Lord Stair is ascribed a direct attempt against the life of the Pretender, by hiring assassins. Many other particulars, such as the alledged offer of Gibraltar to the Spaniards, p. 32, merit the notice of English annalists.

In imitation of the Abbé Raynal, who intersperses his history with eloquent seditious diatribes, this author introduces bold appeals to the liberal passions, and has addressed (p. 148) the Spanish nation in a manner less favorable to the passive tranquillity of a timid superstition, than to the turbulent independence of reasoning energy. By such declamations, it is no doubt hoped to prepare the people of Spain for accepting one of those nominally free constitutions, which the French republic usually confers on its conquered provinces. The Spanish churches will afford a rich booty, and the Spanish Indies a rich tribute.

This author ascribes to the private theatricals introduced by the Marchioness of Pompadour, that corruption of female manners and that boldness of the sex which were so conspicuous in France before the revolution; and which, by rendering husbands indifferent to their pretended families and to their domestic comforts, have been so powerful a cause of the general desertion of their hearths and altars by the leading men of France.

P. 158, vol. 2. The administration of Machault is noticed with merited attention. This minister was the first author of a plan for subjecting the ecclesiastical property of France to taxation by the state. His scheme was to sequester, on the deaths of the incumbents, half of the income of every living which produced more than a given salary to the clergyman. A cry of danger to the church, which intimidated the piety of the king, excited successful opposition to this projected profanation; and Machault was compelled to resign: but his character stood so high in the opinion of the prince, afterward Louis XVI., that the first attempt of this monarch to nominate a minister of his own was made in favor of Machault. The infidels took advantage of the controversy excited by this project, and circulated bitter attacks on church power, church arrogance, and church avarice.

P. 164. The literary journeys of *Lacaille* and *Lalande*, to determine the figure of the earth, are too slightly mentioned. By narrating useful enterprises with a preference of attention, the historian can best secure their repetition.

We shall extract this writer's account of the origin of the Encyclopedia, by which the tenth chapter of the ivth book is occupied. (Vol. ii. p. 188.)

'While the Jansenists and Molinists were busying the multitude with their controversies, *D'Alembert* and *Diderot* were compiling, under the name of Encyclopedia, a vast and ill-digested repertory of human knowlege. In 1752 appeared, the first and second volumes; in which the editors had included reflections on religion and politics, equally alarming to the fanatics and to the enemies of public liberty. The priests, especially, repeated incessantly that this lump of argumentations, some solid and some captious, far from teaching men to think, would only lead them to doubt those principles on which the institutions of society depend.

'The composition of this vast work necessarily required a multitude of fellow-labourers. This was a centre of union, and a rallying point for the philosophers; who began to form a body without owning it. There was in France an encyclopedic sect, as there was in Greek an ionic sect, an academic sect. *Voltaire*, although remote from the metropolis, was the chieftain of the encyclopedists. The assistance which he gave, the greatness of his celebrity, the universality of his talents, and his access among sovereign princes, conspired to obtain for him this rank.

'The two editors, vain as they were, considered themselves merely as the lieutenants of *Voltaire*. To dissipate prejudice, to annihilate error, to enlighten mankind, to prepare the reign of concord and beneficence on earth, formed the bold design of the encyclopedists. They undertook, each in his own department of society, to propagate without relaxation, and in every possible form, a doctrine which was abominable in the eyes of their enemies, but which their partisans considered as humane and salutary.

'The great number of assistants, who had not equal talents, was the principal obstacle to the accomplishment of the magnificent promises made by *D'Alembert* in his prospectus of the work. The Encylopedia is an edifice of gold and of dirt. It must be re-made over and over again, before it can attain perfection; and even then the discrepancy of style, and the inequality of erudition and intellect, will always prevent a man of taste from regarding it as an harmonious whole.

'The Jesuits were the first to attack the Encyclopedia: they entered into this warfare as much from interest and pique, as from zeal for the public good. The Encyclopedia was intended to supplant their dictionary of *Trevoux*; which was a mortification to the society. They caballed, therefore, against the new work; and having found out twenty articles which were susceptible of an offensive interpretation by the civil or ecclesiastical authority, they obtained

tained a decree of council, which condemned it. The police-officers went to the house of *Diderot*, and seized his manuscripts. The Encyclopedists soon recovered this temporary inconvenience. Their main point was accomplished; they had a centre of unity, an established hierarchy, a system to inculcate, and signs of recognition. They knew that persecution is the aliment of zeal, as of fanaticism; they sowed with labor, but they expected a grand harvest.

'The Jesuits, meanwhile, were persecuting with equal obstinacy the Encyclopedists and the Jansenists. The clergy opened its ordinary assembly on the 28th May 1755, and great divisions arose on the bull Unigenitus. It was agreed to address the Pope, in order to receive his paternal instructions.'

The attempt of *Damiens* on the life of Louis XV. is treated with excessive gravity. Even the Dauphin is supposed to have been a parricidal accomplice. It is more probable that *Damiens* was an insane Jansenist, wholly undirected; and whom an humane prince would only have sent to a hospital for lunatics, for striking at him with so insignificant a weapon as a common clasp-knife. The savage cruelty of the execution was a disgrace to the national jurisprudence.

The suppression of the Jesuits is narrated with insufficient detail. (P. 358.) This order ranks so highly in point of erudition, and has so much merit for superintending well the department of education, that we almost feel inclined to regret its non-existence.

Vol. 3. p. 8. Many curious, and, (notwithstanding Mr. Boswell's work*,) to us, new particulars of the Rebellion of Corsica are here given. The senators of the opulent commercial *Genova* did not favor, with liberal sagacity, in the dependent island, the establishment of manufactures, the free exportation of produce, and the consequent abolition of *feudal farming*; which reduces every tenant to a mere husbandman, and every husbandman to dependence for the very instruments of labor on his landlord,—or rather on the steward of his metropolitan landlord. The revenues of the national church were absorbed by a foreign continental clergy: in the project of reconciliation, it is proposed to fill three of the five bishoprics always with Corsicans. The civil employments, in like manner, were considered as a patrimony of the Genovese nobility: in the petition for redress, the Corsican barristers claim that all the justicers, nine of the assessors, and one of the two auditors, shall be native and resident Corsicans. The privilege of self-taxation is arrogated by the assembled heads of parishes (*Capi di Pieve*). The mediation of France hatched these eggs of well-founded discontent into rash claims of in-

* History of Corsica; see Rev. vol. xxxix.

dependence; and then forcibly reduced the war-worn island into an unconditional transfer of its obedience. *Muratori* attributes to the party of *young men*, in the Genovese senate, those irritating military measures which provoked the desperate decision of the Corsicans, and their unfortunate struggle for independence.

A curious detail occurs (at p. 45) respecting a monopoly of corn, undertaken by the king and the ministers for the sake of the mercantile profit expected from the operation. As soon as the purchases were completed, an edict permitting the free exportation and importation of corn, in all times and circumstances, was published; which had the effect of raising the price, and of bringing into popularity among the landed interest the doctrine of *Quesnay*, on which this edict was supposed to be founded.

A seditious diatribe (p. 128) is addressed to the inhabitants of Louisiana, who are supposed to view with impatience their subjection to the court of Spain. This may be considered as an indication of the views of the Directory, under whose patronage this author is understood to write. How much more for the interest of that province would it be to incorporate with the United States of North America!

The great firmness of the French parliaments, at the close of the reign of Louis XV., both in the affair of the Duke *d'Aiguillon* and in that of the *lit-de-justice*, is here ascribed (p. 214) with great probability to the underhand support of the Duke *de Choiseul*, then minister, but threatened with dismissal by the dislike of Madame *Dubarri*, the king's mistress. *Maupeou* had little difficulty, after the dissolution of these independent parliaments, in moulding the new members to ministerial servility.

The Swedish revolution is treated at p. 248; and some new particulars are given respecting the influence of France on that occasion. The conduct of Gustavus III. was completely tyrannical, however considerable were his personal virtues.

(P. 290.) So profligate was the rapacity of the French court become under Louis XV., that in 1772 the minister of finance *Terrai*, an ecclesiastic, seized on a sum of money subscribed in Paris for the building of a new hospital, and applied it to the wants of the courtiers. The death of the monarch took place in 1774.

Vol. 4. opens with the accession of Louis XVI. He had drawn up a letter to invite *Machault* to be his minister, and was induced by his aunt to direct it to *Maurepas*. This almost imbecile ductility was the great cause of his reigning so long. Like an echo, he always repeated after the last speaker: any party therefore might hope to bend him to its views, and to

to employ him as its instrument. This hope prevented the revolutionary writers from attacking the opinions favourable to royalty. The word republic was never started, either while *Turgot* was organizing provincial administrations, or while the parliaments were soliciting the assemblage of the States-General. It had all the stimulus of novelty, when broached by the Girondists. Every thing was ripe for a revolution in France in 1775: but the American war withdrew the public attention from domestic change. Had the revolution taken place at that time, it would not have proceeded so far: Christianity and the church would probably have been given up even then: but royalty and nobility would both have retained a modified and permanent establishment. Opinions are always progressive. To defer alteration is not to escape it,—but to incur a greater magnitude of change.

The extraordinary administration of *Turgot* is perhaps not narrated with sufficient detail. Pointed out to the king by his popularity among the Encyclopedists, he did not break, when in power, the implied conditions of his elevation. He acted for the people, not for the sovereign. He restored the independent parliaments of *Choiseul*: he introduced to official experiment the projects, and to popular circulation the doctrines, of the physiocrates:—but his grant of the freedom of the corn-trade having excited among the merchants of the seaports a spirit of speculation in grain, the commodity rose,—and so did the mob. *Turgot* then sent round among the clergy a sort of homily on the corn-trade. Previously to its promulgation some bishop observed that the king had not been anointed. *Turgot* thought the ceremony needless. The insurrections continued; and at last *Turgot* deemed it expedient to comply. —His next measures were the abolition of statutes of apprenticeship, or rather of the privileges attached to septennial servitude; and the abolition of the parish-duty performed on the highways, which French prejudice considered as degrading, which was unjustly confined to ignoble tenures, and which was attacked for the sake of instituting a sort of provincial magistracy, or justice-meetings, preparatory to a more formal county-representation. The independent parliaments refused to register these edicts. *Turgot* was not superior to the use of despotic means: he had sent *Necker* to the Bastille, for writing in favor of restrictions on the corn-trade: he now held a *lit-de-justice* to emancipate apprentices. The turbulence of the vulgar was thus re-inforced by the frown of the just: the courtiers insisted on the unpopularity of the minister, and this with Louis XVI. was a sufficient ground of dismissal.—From this time, the history of France is familiar to every newspaper politician.

Some curious particulars occur at p. 230, relative to the active and benevolent life of Paul Olavides, a native of Peru, and a judge of Lima, but in early life a dissipater of his patrimony. He came to Europe, married a rich widow, visited Paris, altered some French tragedies for the theatre of Madrid, and contributed to the periodical publications of Feijoo and Clavigo. He drew the attention of the Marquis d'Aranda, a daring friend, like Azzara, to liberty of sentiment. He was sheriff or *personero* of Madrid at the time of the expulsion of the Jesuits. Intrusted with the civil lieutenancy of Seville, he undertook the cultivation of a vast desert called Sierra Morena, which he distributed in lots among some German colonists, and which is now furnishing much of their Sherry to the wine-merchants of Malaga and Cadiz. Unfortunately, these colonists were protestants. Some neighbouring monks undertook and failed in their conversion. Olavides, to rid his colony of such importunity, applied for the removal of the convent. The inquisition took alarm; and, on the disgrace of his protector, Aranda, committed him to prison in November 1778. He was disennobled, his property was confiscated, and a penance of eight years was enjoined; during which he found means to escape into France. The colonists, thinned by pestilence, worn by toil and climate, and harassed by heresy-ferrets, were ordered back to Germany, and deprived of the vine-yards which their own industry had created, and the promise of which had tempted their migration.

Soon after the admission of *Necker* to the ministry, about 1777, a project was laid before the privy-council, for restoring to the protestants the rights of citizens. The proposal came before the parliaments: but the alarms of the bishops induced the court to withdraw a measure which it originally countenanced. It was the French attempt at a repeal of the test-act.

Vol. 5. p. 102. Strange circumstances are related of the English war with Tippoo-Saib, which have given occasion also to a separate * work of this author; who professes to have translated from the Hindoo language some memoirs of that Sultan written by himself.

Concerning the Revolution of France, M. Desodoards chiefly repeats, in a more condensed form, the narrative which we have already reviewed; and which has the merit of an indifference about the recent changes of his country, natural only in an absentee, and favourable to impartiality, though not to vivacity and interest.

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* *Mémoires de Tipoo-Zaeb, ecrits par lui même, & traduits par Desodoards.* 8vo. Paris. An. 4.

Art.

ART. V. *Les Colons de toutes Couleurs*, &c.; *i. e.* The Colonists of all Complexions. By M. DE TEXIER. 3 vols. 12mo. about 300 pages in each. Berlin. 1798. London, Dulau and Co. Price 12s. sewed.

AMONG barbarous nations, nothing appears so attractive as descriptions of luxury, magnificence, and refinement, carried to their highest pitch of dazzling splendor and profusion. The tales of the Arabians are therefore filled with delineations of glittering pomp and gorgeous pageantry; every apartment is floored with sandal, and ceiled with nacre; the silken tapestries are strained on studs of diamonds, which reflect the brilliancy of golden lamps fed with oil of roses; and slaves, beautiful as the Perics, execute symphonies, spread the repast, glide in voluptuous dance, or beckon to the secret sofa. Among *polished* nations, however, where luxury begins to cloy, and the grimace of formality to fatigue, the tales which find most favor are those of Otaheitean simplicity and unsophisticated nature. The imagination then delights to sail in quest of some Pelew island, to repose in improvident leisure beneath the banana's shade, beside a shining stream; or to dwell in a hut of reed among friendly villagers, where all is plenty, pastime, innocence, ignorance, and bliss. To this propensity of civilized man to escape, at least in idea, from the trammels and restraints of surrounding considerations, M. DE TEXIER has addressed himself in the novel before us. He supposes some white, mulatto, and black inhabitants of Saint Domingo, whom reciprocal services had attached to each other, to have fled from a servile war at home to the African coast. They penetrate into the heart of the continent, and settle on the southern bank of the Niger. They bring with them enough of the language, the arts, and the culture of Europe, to teach the Mandingoes whatever was yet wanting for their defence, their accommodation, or their improvement. They legislate in morals with elegance, in laws with equity, and in tactics with spirit; and they gradually form a new nation of whites, blacks, creoles, and mulattoes, whose eclectic institutions claim less service, allow more liberty, and confer more enjoyment, than are compatible with the complexity of the political fabrics of Europe. They stop by choice in an early stage of social progression; and they retain a great deal of their native independence, and all the Arcadian simplicity, with only so much of cohesion as is necessary to repress crime, and to secure defence.

From this outline, it will be perceived that the novel bears a considerable resemblance to *the Island of Stolberg*, and to the

Memoirs of Planetes *. It is executed with less taste and nobleness than the former, and with less argument and profoundness than the latter of these works: but it is more entertaining, though more trifling, than either, by the freer admixture of mere incident, and by the greater approximation of the personages to every-day nature. Should Mr. Wadstrom obtain, from the different governments of Europe, an universal acknowlegement of the independence of Sierra Leone, or Bulam, perhaps such a national population as is here described may result, hereafter, from the well-meant spirit of his endeavours, and the tasteful liberality of his institutions.

A short extract will give some idea of the execution of this well-imagined romance:

'The cornac (keeper) of our elephant now gave Edward a specimen both of the skill of the master and of the intelligence of the pupil. A sort of language has established itself between them, consisting partly of such inarticulate tones as the hunters use, and partly of pantomime. Some aid is derived from an iron rod, hooked at one end, and pointed at the other. The hook serves for a rein, and the point for a spur. Edward was much surprised to find this mode of travelling so pleasant, and so much swifter than the ponderous proportions of the animal seem to announce. It keeps pace with a horse trotting, and it never stumbles nor slackens.

'The journey gave Edward an opportunity of personally examining the relation of the populousness to the soil, and the general state and system of our agriculture and well-being. They differed no where widely from what he had already seen in the neighbourhood of Adriani. Every where he saw the same mediocrity, the same marks of general ease and comfort, the same absence of great wealth or property. Inequality has not produced indigence, because no temptation exists to accumulate by invading the inheritance of others. The general affluence is the more easy to preserve, as the vast quantity of unoccupied land will long keep off that overflow of populousness, which is attended with the extreme depression of the multitude. Around every village he found a certain quantity of waste, which is progressively to be allotted to the children and grand-children of the inhabitants. These vast commons facilitate meanwhile a great multiplication of cattle. In time, no doubt, other animals will give place to man; or rather the arts of cultivation will enable us to rear, on a given surface, more men and more animals.'

This novel would gain by some abridgments and changes. It is much to be wished, indeed, that all those who undertake the translation of secondary works of art would prune and curtail more freely: most of our translated romances would be improved by the omission of half of their contents; and we doubt not that foreign reviewers say the same of our own.

* See Rev. vol. xviii. N. S. p. 22.

ART.

ART. VI. *Mémoires d'*HYPOLITE CLAIRON, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of Mademoiselle CLAIRON. With Reflections on the Dramatic Art; published by herself.

[*Art. concluded. See our last Appendix*, p. 557—560.]

WE have at length procured a copy of this singularly curious and entertaining piece of self-biography; *parts* of which are written with such spirit and originality, as manifest the author to be possessed of a strong mind, which has enabled her to reason and reflect on her professional duties in a more acute and profound manner than any of her predecessors. Yet, as a *whole*, there is so great a want of order and arrangement, that it seems rather a collection of fragments, preparatory to a biographical work, than a regular series of incidents, chronologically traced.

The work begins with the history of an *Apparition*; by which, during the early years of her dramatic fame, Mademoiselle CLAIRON was haunted and persecuted in an extraordinary manner. Then we have reflections on the dramatic art, with some of which we presented our readers in our last Appendix; and here we have not only an analysis of the chief characters which she represented, but the principles on which her fame was built. After this, we meet with a portraiture of Mademoiselle *Dumesnil*, a rival actress of great reputation. All these things, and more, are detailed before the fair writer speaks of her own *birth*, *parentage*, and *education*, and of the gradations by which she arrived at celebrity;—and after having divided her theatrical life into three periods or sections, she again returns to her first reception at the *Comedie Françoise*, or great national theatre, in order to insert some anecdotes concerning herself, with which she was unwilling to interrupt the narration.

In the section of these Memoirs which this renowned actress entitles the two *Electras*, (tragedies on the same subject by *Crebillon* and *Voltaire*,) she says:

'I trust that I shall not offend those who pursue the same professional career, by supposing them to be, during youth, as ignorant and vain as myself.

'The applause bestowed on my first attempts, the verses addressed to me from all quarters, the adulation of those who were dying at my feet, the exaggeration of fools, and the jealousy of rivals, did not suffer me to entertain the least doubt of my being the most extraordinary person that ever trod the stage. When the names of two great actresses, *Lecouvreur*, and *de Seine*, my predecessors, were mentioned, I felt that disdain which those who succeed me will probably feel whenever my name shall be pronounced in their hearing.

'Mademoiselle *Lecouvreur* was no longer in existence; I could not therefore judge of her talents. Mademoiselle *de Seine*, who had retired from the stage during ten years, constantly attended my first performances; and the applause which she bestowed on me, particoucularly in the character of Electra, on the execution of which part her greatest glory was said to have been founded, completely turned my head. I took every possible step to get acquainted with her, and to prevail on her to declaim a scene in that part. A mutual friend procured me both those gratifications.

'When she entered the room, I could only perceive a woman past her prime, announcing nothing of the dignity which I feared and expected. Her head was ill dressed, she wore an ordinary gown, and had no other expression in her countenance than that of utter indifference; she had nothing imposing in her appearance; and the sound of her voice, and the few trifling sentences which she uttered, would have inclined me to believe, if I had not seen her, that I heard the voice of a froward child. I triumphed. Her unwillingness to repeat, before me, any speeches in the part which she used to act, appeared as much a confession of her insufficiency, as of my superiorty. At length she consented to go through a scene of the third act of Electra; and I was framing in my mind a little civil, false, but well-turned compliment, which I could not help bestowing, were her declamation ever so bad: — — — — —but the dignified air which she assumed, on rising to arrange the chairs in rows to form a stage and side scenes, and the change which I perceived in her whole person, as the moment for beginning approached, changed also my own ideas; my vanity faded; I felt tears coming fast into my eyes; and when she spoke, the accents of despair, the deep affliction in her countenance, the noble and affecting manner in which her whole person was absorbed, took entire possession of my soul, enlightened it, and drew me to her feet; where, in punishment for my impertinent presumption, and to free me from it for ever, I confessed all my previous sensations.

'Emulation is necessary to excite diligence, and we should make no progress without it: but we ought to keep vanity at a distance.'

Our next extract shall be the account which this tragic heroine gives of the persevering apparition by which she was tormented: but we shall make no remarks on it, leaving it as a problem for our ingenious readers to solve at their leisure.

When Mademoiselle Clairon first appeared on the stage, she was besieged by an army of young fops and old libertines.

'Among the rest, (says she,) was a Monsieur *de S.* son of a merchant of Brittany, for whom I had a sort of friendship: but he hoped for something more. This young man was of so gloomy, fretful, and suspicious a temper, that, after a certain time, I dismissed him. On his being taken ill, however, I bestowed on him all the kindness and attention in my power: but, when he was recovered, I refused him admission again into my house, and returned him all his letters.

'Two

'Two years afterward, he died, having no one with him but an old lady, his relation, the only society which he had admitted for a long time. One evening, when several friends, and my mother, had supped with me, after having been very chearful, I sang several lively songs: but when the clock had struck eleven, we heard a cry of the most lamentable complaint, for which we were unable to account. We sent several persons into the street, to try to discover whence this lamentation proceeded. My friends and neighbours had all heard the mournful cry at the same time, constantly under my window; and it as constantly seemed to be produced in the air without any apparent cause: but it called on our attention by circumstances still more incomprehensible. One time among others, when M. B*** the master of the revels, with whom I had supped, and who waited on me home, was taking leave of me, the fatal cry was heard just over our heads, and almost terrified us to death. This phenomenon immediately furnished conversation for all Paris, and was recorded in the register of the police.

'After some other alarms of a similar kind, the ghost, tired of bewailing himself, meditated other pranks.

'Conversing one night with my usual visitors, the clock struck eleven, and was instantly followed by the discharge of a musquet, seemingly levelled at one of my windows; every one heard the report, and saw the flash: but no mischief was done of any kind, not even a pane broken in the window against which it was fired. Every one, however, concluded that my murder was intended. The master of the revels flew to the Lieutenant de police, who was his friend; all the neighbouring houses were searched; and the street was filled with spies; yet, notwithstanding all these precautions, the musquet was discharged against the same window during three months, without killing any one, or ever breaking the glass.

'The pains which the master of the revels took to discover the mysterious business were ill rewarded; and the ghost, by whom he was not beloved, was doubtless offended with him for alarming all Paris about the report of a musquet, which was certainly very innocent.

'One fine night, the hour was forgotten; and the window consecrated to the pranks of the ghost was opened. The master of the revels and I were leaning over the rails of a balcony:—but, when the clock struck eleven, the gun was fired, which drove us both back into the middle of the room, where we fell, and lay like dead persons. When we came to ourselves, we looked at each other, laughing, and confessed that we had each received the most violent slap on the face that had ever visited the human countenance.

'These lamentable cries, reports of musquets, and slaps on the face, were succeeded by the clapping of hands:—a noise to which the encouragement of the public had long accustomed me. After this, I heard aerial music; a celestial voice seemed to give a specimen of the air that was going to be sung. Though many heard this voice, nothing was to be seen. Accustomed to my ghost, who was a good-natured devil enough, I paid little attention to the melodious sounds that were floating in the air;—and at length all these phenomena

mena ceased, after a little more than two years' duration, when the ghost seemed to have laid himself, and to be reconciled to his tomb, which he quitted no more.

'Being informed that an elderly lady wished to see me, and having always treated age with respect, I went out of my room to receive her. An emotion, for which I could not account, made me examine her minutely from head to foot; and this emotion was much increased, when I found that she examined me with the same degree of attention. All that I could do was to beg her to sit down, and we had both occasion for support. Our silence continued, but our eyes left no doubt of the desire which we reciprocally had to break silence. She knew whom I was, but I was wholly unacquainted with her. She was sensible that it was her business to speak first, and the following conversation took place.

"I have long, Madam, eagerly wished to know you: but never going to the theatre, and having no acquaintance with persons who have the happiness of seeing you elsewhere, I was unwilling to explain my wish in writing, lest a letter, leaving you in doubt as to my motives, should meet with a refusal." After having listened, not very patiently, to a torrent of compliments on my person, talents, and celebrity,—I begged, if she had any business to disclose, that she would speak, or I must leave her.—She then informed me, that she was the best friend of Monsieur S., and the only one whom he would see during the latter years of his life. "Our whole time (said she) was employed during this period in speaking of you, sometimes as an angel, sometimes as a d——l: but we always finished by my entreating him to forget you; yet he always protested that he would love you beyond the tomb.—Your eyes, which I now see full of tears, permit me to ask why you used him so cruelly; and how, with a heart full of sensibility, you could refuse him the consolation of seeing and speaking to you once more?"——— 'We cannot (I answered) command our hearts. M. S. had merit, and estimable qualities: but his gloomy, revengeful, and despotic character, made me equally dread his society, his friendship, and his love. In order to render him happy, it would have been necessary that I should renounce all human intercourse, and even my talents. I was poor and proud; and I wished then, as I hope to continue to wish, to owe nothing but to my own powers and diligence. The friendship which I had conceived for him made me desirous of leading him to more tranquil and equitable sentiments: but not succeeding, and persuaded that his obstinacy proceeded less from passion than from the violence of his character, I determined to separate myself from him entirely. I refused to see him in his last moments, because such a sight would have torn my heart: I feared to shew myself too cruel in refusing what might have been asked, and should have been too miserable had I granted it. These, Madam, have been the motives of my conduct; and I hope that I shall not incur the blame of any reasonable person.'———

"To condemn you, Madam, (she replied,) would doubtless be unjust; we owe great sacrifices only to oaths, parents, and benefactors; and on this last point, I well know to whom gratitude is due. I assure you that his mind was penetrated with the obligations which he

he owed to you: but he was overcome by passion; and your last refusal hastened his dissolution. He anxiously counted every moment till his servant returned at half an hour past ten o'clock, and told him, positively, that you had determined not to come. After a short silence, he seized my hand in a fit of despair, which terrified me —— *Barbarian!* he cried —— *she shall repent of her inhumanity; I shall pursue her as constantly when dead, as when alive.* I tried to calm him, but he was no more!"

Mademoiselle Clairon was much alarmed at this threat: but, at last, recovering from her fright, she makes some pertinent reflections on apparitions. 'Who am I,' she says, 'that Nature should step out of her course to torment me? If by some apparent derangement of her laws, she should apprize us, either by her anger or benevolence, of the means of avoiding calamities and crimes, her care would be worthy of the Creator of the universe. Let us adore his providence, merit his protection, and pretend to nothing more.'

We shall terminate our extracts by the ingenuous account which Mademoiselle Clairon, in a letter to a female friend, gives of her first discovery of the diminution of her youth and beauty.

'Having arrived at my 40th year, without perceiving, myself, the least alteration in my person; and the gorgeous habiliments in which I necessarily appeared on the stage aiding, perhaps, the illusion in others; an illusion that was still fortified and sustained by the variety of characters which I had to represent, and the passions which I had to paint in theatrical perspective: my friends still thought me charming, and my lover doated on me to distraction. In short, I had not the slightest suspicion of the petty larceny which time had committed; till one day, more desirous of pleasing than usual, I was determined to heighten my charms by the most elegant articles of dress which I could possibly select; such as we always keep in reserve, in order to dazzle, surprise, and excite rapturous exclamations! Looking stedfastly at my glass to see how my hair appeared, it seemed as if my woman had been careless and inattentive to the turn of my countenance, and had placed my ornaments in such a manner as to render me less agreeable than I was accustomed to appear. However, I boldly asked for the charming cap which was sure to kill: but, in whichever way I placed it, I found that it failed of its usual effect. I threw it aside, and tried twenty others, but ineffectually; till, at length, I narrowly examined myself. With my nose in the glass, illumined by a bright day, I discovered several wrinkles in my forehead! at the two corners of my eyes! in the turn of my neck! that my teeth were not so white as formerly! that my lips were not so fresh! and that my eyes were not so bright! and, unluckily, I was in perfect health! ——— Obliged to confess that it was not the fault of my woman, nor of my caps, I burst into tears. What weakness! you will say. Alas! I had an affection for a person, on pleasing whom my whole happiness depended. The moment

was

was tremendous: my affliction lasted six months; and my sufferings were the more acute, as I was obliged to try to conceal the cause. From the first moment of this cruel discovery, I determined on practising the most genuine simplicity of dress; I wished no longer to excite attention by the allurements of finery, and hoped that I should the more easily escape scrutinizing glances; since criticism and envy ought to be silent on the imperfections of those who humbly acknowlege them. I made no claims; and though I redoubled my attention to my lover, I no longer spoke the language of love, and insensibly repressed all its sensations. My conduct was observed, and a reason for it was required: when it was assigned, its ingenuousness made an impression. By this probity, I still kept possession of a heart during five years, which many women disputed, and of which the inheritance of a great fortune deprived me for ever.

'Reflect, my dear friend, on these circumstances. At 30 years of age, men have the folly to rank us among old women, and to blame *us* for pretensions which *they* dare to form at the most disgusting period of senility. This injustice deserves pity more than anger; neither take offence at it, nor be frightened into sacrifices. You must consult your vanity, your delicacy, and your reason, in order to discover what claims you still have left. You cannot dissemble that every day robs you of some attraction and some grace; but your mind, exercised by time and experience, will incline you to supply the loss of charms, by virtues which will secure to you an empire not only more mild and gentle, but certainly much more durable, than that of beauty.'

With this moral reflection, we shall take our leave of this more spirited than moral production.

ART. VII. *Antidote au Congrès de Rastadt*, &c.; *i. e.* An Antidote to the Congress of Rastadt;—or, a Plan for a New Balance of Power in Europe. 8vo. pp. 400. London (*a pretence*) 1798.

IT has somewhere been observed by Mr. Miles, the political writer, that from an untravelled minister we cannot expect wise diplomatic politics: he has however found a minister docile to his own suggestions, if, from the praise of M. *Mallet Du Pan*, it may be inferred that this work really speaks the sense of the cabinet of London. It revives the project, once rational but now too late, of an union between Holland and Flanders, under the sway of a king of the Netherlands. Who is to execute this project? The king of Prussia, no doubt. Should he succeed, what could prevent his retaining possession of both for himself? *Partition* is, on the continent, the order of the day: no new *little* powers, mere fuel for future wars, should be created, where *great* powers are at hand to occupy and to incorporate. The most essential continental interest of Great Britain is to facilitate the extension of Prussian dominion, so

that it may abut against the frontier of France. Until then, the *northern aggrandizement* of France is not at a stand. (See Rev. vol. xxii. p. 405.)

The project suggested, at page 80, for pacification, has the radical fault of lining with *petty* states the French frontier; all which, in their turn, would have to receive first a French constitution, and then an incorporation with the republic. It is strange that the continental nations should hope to keep the French at bay, without offering to their subjects at least a British constitution; in which the elective structure of the lower house might again attract the confidence of the multitude, recover their allegiance, and renew that principle of adherence in the people at large, without which armies spend their efforts in vain. French principles have been called disorganizing: but they have produced, in the nation adopting them, an attraction of cohesion hitherto unknown; which is darting its wedgy crystals in every direction, and severing, with a resistless interstitial force, the comparatively loose and feeble organization of every contiguous state.

There are many passages in this work which are highly dangerous to the interests of Great Britain; such is the advice insinuated at page 251 to throw up the West India islands. The account given of the financial system of this country tends also to injure its credit. The recommendation to the confederated powers, to employ against France resources borrowed from French legislation, to confiscate all ecclesiastical property, and all the landed property of persons not in the politics of government, are proposals only worthy of a Jacobin in disguise. In short, no Englishman of probity and of judgment, if he had read this work with attention, would wish it to form the scale of action for his rulers.

ART. VIII. *Tableau Historique & Politique*, &c.; *i. e.* An Historical and Political View of the Losses which the French Nation has suffered by the Revolution and the War, in its Population, its Agriculture, its Colonies, its Manufactures, and its Commerce. By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. pp. 500. 8s. Boards. Elmsley and Bremner, &c. London. 1799.

THE industrious and skilful investigations of Sir F. D'IVERNOIS, relative to the interior condition of France, have repeatedly attracted our approbation, if they have not overawed our acquiescence. Hitherto, he has principally been occupied with financial discussion *, but he now undertakes an estimate

* See Rev. vol. xix. p. 515, xxi. p. 537, and xxv. p. 575.

of

of the agricultural and commercial state of that country. The telescope of his curiosity certainly discovers many curious phænomena: but it is furnished with a smoked lens, which magnifies and darkens the objects selected for its field of view. Even if no exaggeration attended the statement of the principal data, the inferences deduced from them would still be unallowable. From a diminution of prosperity, real in several respects, it is rash in the extreme to expect a speedy declension of power. History rather supports the conclusion that nations become in a military capacity the more formidable, by their neglect and abandonment of public and private luxury, of orderly industry and patient civilization. Cyrus laid waste Lydia and Syria, but founded the most powerful dynasty of Persian kings. The victories of the Romans ceased not during their poverty, but during their opulence. The wealth of Spain was less obstinate than the poverty of the Netherlands: but Holland, grown rich, became less formidable than Prussia with an inferior revenue. Lord Clive lessened by his ravages the prosperity of Hindostan, yet he promoted the lasting aggrandizement of the British empire. It is not true, then, that national prosperity is a correct measure either of the degree or duration of national power. France may be retrograde as to wealth and civilization, and yet her institutions may be attaining stability and consistence.

That the sources of French prosperity will dry up is itself problematical. What are the main elements of national wealth? Surely the wages of productive labor, and the profits of stock. The comforts of the most numerous class are every where proportioned to the retribution allowed for their toil: the journeyman is better fed, clad, sheltered and taught, the more his time is worth. Now the wages of labor have undergone, throughout France, (see p. 21,) an immense augmentation; which cannot but facilitate early marriages, the great causes of rapid population and of the purity of domestic morals. Wages have, generally speaking, doubled (p. 106): on which account, men-servants and other classes of unproductive labourers are now nearly unknown; and, as *Dupont* observes in his report, workmen are become more profuse consumers. The evidence to this point is so decisive, that our author hesitates (p. 227) whether wages have not tripled. This increase of the market-rate of labor is, in part, to be ascribed to the diminished competition resulting from military requisitions; and in part (p. 229) to the abolition of those oppressive laws which prohibited the combinations (*les ligues*) of journeymen.

The

The general increase of the profits of stock is not less unequivocal. These profits, as is well known, always bear a regular relation to the average interest of money. In the higher lines of business, where much capital is employed, the profits of stock seldom exceed double interest; in the lower lines of business, where little capital is employed, they ascend to triple and quadruple interest. If therefore the average interest of money in France be seven and a half per cent. yearly, the profits of stock must be fifteen, twenty-five, and fifty per cent. This inference our author confirms by stating (p. 210) that commodities, sold retail, gain double the price which they cost wholesale:—so that every grocer and draper in France makes as large a profit on his returns, as an English druggist. This increased amount of profit is accompanied by an increased celerity and a consequent multiplication of return; for (at page 211) we learn that a great abbreviation, or rather abolition, of credit has been adopted by all orders of traders.

We assume, on the authority of private information obtained through a mercantile house at Hamburg, that the average yearly rate of interest in France, between regular and creditable merchants, is about seven and a half per cent.: this might also have been inferred from the data of our author, who says:

'Some time after the fall of *Robespierre*, a discount-bank was set up at the hotel Massiac, by means of which, several of the best houses in Paris made and received their payments. From its commencement, it discounted their paper at ½ per cent. per month, to the amount of their shares or deposits. Since the 18th Fructidor, it has ventured to issue bank-notes.'

We learn afterward (p. 452) that this bank failed: but that another, which discounted at the rate of ¼ per cent. per month, maintains its ground. Now if six per cent. be not, and if nine per cent. be, a rate of discount profitable to a company of bankers, the natural or average rate of interest must lie between both, and amount to about 7½ per cent. yearly.

In defiance of the direct testimony of that very trustworthy traveller Dr. *Meyer*, (see Rev. vol. xxvi. p. 499,) Sir F. D'Ivernois endeavours to prove that the agriculture of France, notwithstanding appearances, must be in a dying state. He complains that the landed properties of France are greatly (p. 26) subdivided since the Revolution, and commonly cultivated by the proprietor; circumstances unfavorable to large farms, and to the possession of abundant capital by the farmer. This, however, is also the case in China, where agriculture has attained its acmé; and, under the French system of hiring instruments of agriculture, and keeping small stocks of cattle,

(the climate rendering manure less essential,) the inconvenience of numerous petty farms is not easily proved. The profits of stock, having increased in other occupations, must also in the farming line be greater than before; and this may easily be the case without any apparent increase of the price of produce, when it is considered that tythes, excises on crops, feudal dues, and game-laws, however iniquitously abolished, have ceased to exist, and that rent is lower than ever. These important benefits are only counteracted by the suppression of the *corvées*, or parish-road-duty; which has occasioned (p. 64) a shameful neglect of the highways:—a turnpike system ought first to have been substituted. In the estimate of the neat produce of France, it has not been recollected that great part of the country is within the latitude which ripens two crops in a year on the same soil. It is on the other hand acknowleged that the dearth (p. 118) of 1794 and 1795 served as an excuse for numberless encroachments on the waste lands, which the anarchy facilitated, and which have greatly increased the mass of productive surface.—To all these causes of agricultural prosperity, the author opposes a collection of complaints from various districts, which all describe themselves as unable to pay the *contribution fonciere*, which is certainly a very moderate tax. The exposition of *Duprat* (p. 82) enumerates grievances of this kind. Be it observed that the French land-tax (or whatever it should be called) is distributed among the several departments, in the complex ratio of their populousness and wealth; and that this wealth is valued in the villages on the scale of the supposed neat produce of the land. Hence every canton or district has a perpetual interest in stating at the lowest its own populousness and produce, and in favouring a similar understatement by its neighbours. With such motives for disparagement, it is only wonderful that the official *cadastres* should not wholly have untenanted the soil, and have sterilized the legitimate surface of *Indre et Loire* into another department of the *Landes*.

On the topic of manufactures, it is observed that Lyons, Sevres, the Gobelins, and all other seats of merely luxurious art, are decaying fast (p. 191): but that Sedan, Louviers, Elbeuf, Carcassone, and Abbeville, preserve a part even of their *fine* demand; and that, by the aid of some manufactures in the conquered provinces, they are enabled to supply France sufficiently even with *coarse* cloth (*draps legers*). The city of Rouen is represented as declining: which may be true of its West India commerce, but it is not true of its manufactures;—we speak after an English traveller in that line of business. Dr. *Meyer* fully supports what we have already stated, (Rev.

vol. xxv. p. 578,) that the manufactures in all the north of France are at a stand, not for want of orders, but for want of hands; a state peculiarly favourable to the profit of the conductor, to the introduction of mechanism, and to every other improvement in the arts of production. Sir F. D'Ivernois affects to advise the re-establishment of public admeasurements of stuffs, and of legal lengths and breadths; as if the English manufactures had not derived advantage from their latitudinarian practice in these respects.

That the holders of funded property, the owners of houses and land, and indeed all the unproductive classes of society, have been crushed—pitilessly crushed—by the French Revolution, is very true:—but to maintain that the inferior lines of industry in France are not attaining a rapidly progressive well-being, is indicative rather of a partisan than of a fair reasoner.

We agree with Sir Francis in thinking it a desirable termination of the present war, that the government of France should be compelled to assume the integrity of the Constituting Assembly, and once more to decree that "France renounces all conquest." This end, however, will not be attained by any depreciating miscalculations of the resources of the republic: but by making it the interest of the numerous classes, to transfer their allegiance from their present military tyrants to some more pacific neighbour.

Art. IX. *Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, for the Year 1790. Extracted from the Registers of this Academy. 4to. Paris. pp. 676. and 15 Plates. 1797.

This famous Academy was established in 1666 under the auspices of Louis XIV. By its labours and discoveries, during more than thirty years from its first institution, it so fully answered the intentions of its royal founder, that in 1699 he honoured it with new marks of distinction, and gave to it what may be termed a second and a more noble birth. M. *de Pontchartrain*, minister and secretary of state, with the advice and assistance of M. *l'Abbé Bignon*, his nephew, (who had been for many years president of the Academy,) formed the laws and regulations of the new constitution, which received the assent of the king. The death-warrant of the Academy was signed by the National Convention of France, in 1793.

Venit summa dies! We must lament its dissolution;—yet the sources of consolation are abundant. It has left an edifice of such variety and grandeur, so fraught with the most exqui-

site specimens and most finished models of art, that we cannot approach it without enthusiasm, nor leave it without instruction! It is within its venerable precincts, that we must seek for the true monument of our great Newton!

We believe that within the list of the members of this Society, (honorary or otherwise,) is comprehended every man who during this century has been at all eminent for science. We must listen, then, with a large portion of academic faith, to those who represent this institution as reserved only for the partisans of rebellion and impiety; who decry its labours, and depreciate its usefulness, by representing it as a royal institution, yet continually plotting the downfall of royalty; as an institution which, although formed by the care and endowed by the munificence of a king styling himself Most Christian, yet propagated with an unceasing and sabbath-less diligence the most pernicious doctrines of Atheism.—Offended bigotry, or frustrated ambition, is regardless of discrimination, and extravagant in its anger:

"Nor *truth* nor reason makes it at a stay." *

It puts into one sweeping clause of Ban and Anathema, the immediate authors of offence, and those who have been instrumental to it remotely, indirectly, and inadvertently.

In times of turbulence and horror, we should not wonder if science and the mild studies of humanity quitted a people, as having no longer any business or cultivation among them; yet the Academy has not ceased to exist solely by the circumstance of times of horror having come on the people of France, but because it was a royal institution, and royalty had been overthrown: for, by the very edict of its destruction, the establishment of another institution, under the title of the *National Institute*, was declared.

The contents of the present volume are memoirs printed for the year 1790† since the month of July 1794, but not exposed to sale, on account of the depreciation of paper money. Its form, and the distribution of its parts, are altered from those of the preceding volumes. The historical part, the reports, the programmas, &c. are omitted: which omission is to be attributed to the avocations of the Secretary, *Condorcet*, when deputy to the National Convention, and who perished miserably in 1794. It is proposed to print a separate volume for the *Eloges*, which will relate to *Franklin*, *Tillet*, *Le Gentil*,

* Altered, slightly, from Dryden.

† The last volume which we noticed was that for 1788: see Rev. vol. viii. N. S. p. 507. The volume for 1789 we have not been able to procure.

Charles,

Charles, Fourcroy (the Engineer), *Rochefoucault, Bonnet, Dietrich, Bailly, Lavoisier, Malesherbes, Saron, Vicq d'Azyr, Condorcet, Du Séjour, Petit, Perronnet, Demours,* and *d'Agelet.* This series of Eloges will terminate the important collection of the Memoirs of the Academy, comprehended in 139 volumes; viz.

Vols. 92 from 1699 to 1790; the year 1772 containing two.
11 from the foundation of the Academy in 1666, until its renewal in 1699.
11 of Memoirs presented to the Academy.
9 of Prizes.
9 of Tables, to 1780.
7 of Machines (drawings of).

A preliminary advertisement to this volume, from which these particulars are extracted, is signed La Lande.—We come now to the Memoirs.

Concerning the Situation, on the Terrestrial Globe, of the principal Ports on the Coast of the Arsacides *in the South-Sea, to the East of New Guinea.* By Pierre le Monnier.

In assigning the longitude to the coasts of New Holland, the makers of charts have been in much uncertainty, with respect to so great a quantity as 4 degrees of longitude.

The author of the present memoir thinks that there are now sufficient means for removing these doubts, to be obtained from the superior construction of time-pieces, and the perfected theories of the trade-winds and sea currents.

Experiments and Observations on the Effect which results from a Combination of one Part of Pewter, with 24 *Parts of fine or allayed Gold; when the Ingot, combined of the Pewter and Gold, and reduced to a Plate, is annealed.* By Matthieu Tillet.

In the *Journal de Physique* for the month of September 1788, was a memoir intitled, "Experiments and Observations on the Manner of melting Gold and Pewter;" in which the reporter controverted the opinion of those metallurgists, who maintain that pewter mixed with gold in the smallest quantity, whether in substance or vapour, entirely destroys the ductility of that metal. The reporter adduced the authority of Mr. Alchorne, assayer in the Tower of London, who published a paper in the Philosophical Transactions to prove that pewter may be mixed with gold in moderate quantities, without producing any bad effects. An abstract is given of the Experiments and Observations of Mr. A.; who is of opinion that gold, melted with pewter in the proportion of one part to 24 parts of gold, forms an alloy which preserves a sufficient ductility to be beaten, reduced into a plate of the thickness of stout paper, to be employed in the manufacture of trinkets, and to be drawn into a fine wire.

The author of the present memoir, being of opinion that pewter mixed with gold rendered it so brittle as to be unfit to be drawn into wire, or beaten into thin plates, &c. repeated the experiments of Mr. Alchorne; these he relates; and he concludes from them that gold, whether fine or alloyed, combined with a small part of the most pure pewter, by melting them thoroughly together, acquires stiffness and hardness; and although, with careful management, it may be beaten out under the hammer, yet, not being able to bear the annealing without the danger of breaking, it is deprived of the essential advantage of being capable of restoration to that state of suppleness which is natural to it. M. TILLET, therefore, consulting the interests of artists, thinks it his duty to restore to them their former doubts on the mixture of gold and pewter. He is moreover of opinion that jewellers, and those who make trinkets, would *find their account* in having their gold refined, previously to the working of it; as they would save an expence of time and labour, which the cautious management of gold mixed with pewter requires.

Memoir on the Disappearance of Saturn's Ring, in 1789 *and* 1790. *By* JEROME LA LANDE.

M. LA LANDE here explains how the position of the sun and moon produced the four phænomena of Saturn's Ring in 1789 and 1790; he likewise enumerates all the observations made by different astronomers, respecting the phænomenon of the disappearance of the Ring, the circumstances under which they were made, and with what agreement. He thinks that the method given by him for ascertaining the phases of the Ring is more simple than that of M. *du Séjour*, who has treated the subject analytically in his *Essai sur les Phenomenes*, and in his *Traité Analytique* of the apparent motions.

Memoir on the Flux and Reflux of the Sea. By PIERRE SIMON LA PLACE.

The true cause of the tides was first assigned by Newton, in his *Principia*. He found that the same law of attraction, which solved the other phænomena of the system, might be applied to this with equal success. The deductions, however, of this great philosopher, concerning the tides, not being sufficiently full and particular, the Paris Academy proposed, as the subject of its prize dissertation for the year 1740, "The Flux and Reflux of the Sea." The prize was shared by *Euler*, *D. Bernouilli*, and *Maclaurin*; who, in three masterly and celebrated treatises, developed the Newtonian theory:—but the question had not been considered, even by these mathematicians, in all its generality. Consulting facility, they had adopted an hypothesis similar to that of Newton concerning the equili-

brium of the sea; which they supposed every instant to be in equilibrio under the action of the heavenly bodies; whereas, the rapid rotatory motion of the earth prevents the water at its surface from assuming, at every instant, the figure which results from the operating forces. In comparing the results from theory with actual observation, a great want of coincidence was manifested in the difference of two tides in the same day; which was observed to be in fact very small, but by theory appeared to be considerable.

The deficiency of their theories was perceived and acknowleged by the authors themselves; and in order to supply it, neither analysis nor the science of the movement of fluids offered adequate resources. The first researches, which were to conduct to a more perfect theory of the tides, were made by *D'Alembert*, in his "*Reflexions sur la Cause des Vents;*" in which he considers the oscillations of a fluid covering a planet placed under the action of an attracting body. Afterward, the discoveries of this great geometrician in the doctrine of fluids, and in analysis, afforded ampler means of considering the subject of the tides under a more general point of view. He introduced a new branch of analysis, called *Calcul aux différences partielles;* a calculation which must necessarily be made, when into the conditions of the problem all the elements which influence the phænomena of the tides are made to enter. From the time of the first invention of this calculus, its inventor, *Euler*, and *La Grange*, have continually and greatly contributed to its perfection.

M. DE LA PLACE, availing himself of the great improvements which had been made in the doctrine of fluids and in pure analysis, since the time of the publication of the treatises of *Euler*, *Bernouilli*, and *Maclaurin*, resumed in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1775 and 1776 the problem of the tides. His hypothesis was simply this; that the spheroid (mentioned in the problem) differs very little from a sphere; that the fluid covering it is of a very small depth, relatively to the radius of the solid; that the spheroid has an uniform rotatory motion round a constant axis; and the centrifugal force thence resulting, for all the parts of a fluid, is very small with respect to the force of gravity;—finally, that these parts obey other forces, such as the attraction of the several heavenly bodies: —which forces, however, are inconsiderable with respect to the force of gravity. The motion of the bodies, likewise, is supposed to be much slower than the rotatory one of the spheroid.—M. DE LA PLACE, by thus establishing his theory on an hypothesis more conformable to real circumstances, was enabled not only to solve the ordinary phænomena, but to assign

the true reason of that almost exact equality which exists between the tides of the same day.

In the present memoir, the theory of the oscillations of the ocean is resumed; and its correspondence with actual observation is more particularly considered. The author remarks that

'To ascertain the proximity of such a correspondence, it was necessary to have a collection of a great number of observations made with care, during a period of many years, in a port where the phænomena of the tides are very sensible, regular, and liable to be affected by the winds only in a small degree. Of this kind, the most extensive collection is that of observations made at Brest, at the commencement of this century; which M. *Cassini* found among the papers of his grandfather, and which M. *de la Lande* published in the 4th volume of the 2d edition of his Astronomy. Of these observations I have made use; and from their examination, so striking a regularity (regard being had to all the causes capable of interrupting it) manifests itself, that I do not hesitate to point out the port of Brest as one of the most favourable for observations on the tides, if made with attention equal to that which has been devoted to the determination of the other phænomena of the system. This port is probably indebted, for the advantage which I have mentioned, to the circumstances of its advanced position in the sea, and of the narrow entrance of its road compared with the breadth; hence the irregular oscillations of the waters of the sea are much diminished. *Jacques Cassini* only gave, in our memoirs, the consequences which he deduced from the observations of which I have spoken; and on this occasion a very important remark forces itself on our notice, concerning the necessity of publishing the original observations made on any phænomenon; since it frequently happens that the best established theory of phænomena renders those observations interesting, which had formerly been neglected because they appeared to be of small importance. The truth of this remark has been suggested to me and exemplified in my researches. The above mentioned collection of observations does not contain any relative to the law which regulates the ascent and descent of the waters of Brest; a defect which I have supplied by accurately detailed observations made in that port at my request.

'In observations of this kind, where a thousand accidental causes may intervene, and obstruct the regular course of nature, it becomes necessary to consider a great number of them at once; in order that, adventitious causes balancing each other in their effects, the mean results may exhibit only regular or constant phænomena. It is moreover requisite, by an advantageous combination of observations, to groupe the phænomena which we are desirous of determining, and to separate them, that they may be distinguished with greater facility and exactness. Such a method I have pursued; and a departure from it exposes us to the danger of mistaking, as a law of nature, the effect of an accidental cause. For instance; *Jacques Cassini* concluded, from the comparison of some isolated observations, that the greatest

greatest tides of Syzigies happened, *cæteris paribus*, in the equinoxes. M. *de la Lande*, acting on a plan of a similar principle, obtained a contrary result.—In the course of this memoir, it will appear that the results of a great number of observations place the fact beyond all doubt, that the greatest tides in Syzigies and the least tides in Quadratures happen in the Equinoxes; and that the declinations of the sun and moon have a very sensible influence on the height and interval of the tides.'

M. DE LA PLACE then proceeds to give the summary of the results to which he has attained in the present memoir. He first considers the most simple case of the problem; the sun acting solely on the waters, and moving in the plane of the equator. Here the result would be the ocean in the same state at every interval of 12 hours, and a flux and reflux in the space of half a day. It is likewise shewn in what manner the law of the ascent and descent may be determined, and for what cause the diminution of the tide in ports varies a little from this law:—moreover, that the more extensive and shallow a sea is, the more sensible are the phænomena of the tides.

The author next estimates the action of the moon, and points out the remarkable phænomena which arise from the combined action of the sun and moon. For instance; the whole tide at its maximum; which happens when the full lunar tide coincides with the full solar tide in Syzigies, the actions of the sun and moon then co-operating: again; the whole tide at its minimum, the high lunar tide coinciding with the low solar tide, which happens in Quadratures.

In the latter part of the summary, the motions and the distances of the centre of the earth from the sun and moon are made to vary. In this case, by developing the expressions for their actions on the sea, the different terms may represent the actions of the same number of bodies, moving uniformly at constant distances from the earth; whence it will be easy to determine the flux and reflux of the sea, corresponding to the inequality of the motions and the distances of the sun and moon. If the phænomena of the tides be thus submitted to analysis, it will appear that the tides produced by these two heavenly bodies increase in the inverse ratio of the cubes of the distances; *cæteris paribus*, then, the tides ought to increase in the perigee of the moon, and diminish in its apogee. This phænomenon is remarkable at Brest. It appears, by a comparison of observations, that one minute of variation in the semidiameter of the moon corresponds to 2 ft. 8 of variation in the whole tide; and observation is in this instance so conformable to theory, that it is possible by these means to deter-

mine the law of the action of the moon on the sea relatively to its distance.

The last case is that in which the author makes the sun and moon to move not in the plane of the equator, but as they really do in nature; and from their declinations, he says, new phænomena will appear, which, compared with theory, give additional confirmation to his system.

At the conclusion of his summary, M. DE LA PLACE adds,

'Hence appears the accordance of the theory founded on the law of gravitation, with the phænomena of the heights and intervals of the tides. Many of these phænomena have been first pointed out by the theory, and afterwards confirmed by observation; others, known to me by observation, and which did not appear to have any possible dependance on the theory, have resulted from that theory when more thoroughly examined. In general, all the results from theory, abstracting from local circumstances, have been confirmed by observation; and when local circumstances have modified the results from theory, then, by attending to these circumstances and estimating their effects, the same agreement has appeared. More numerous, more exact, and more detailed observations than those already made, adding farther confirmation to the theory, may moreover determine the small partial tides which depend on the fourth power of the lunar parallax, and on other quantities neglected in the calculation. We are therefore as much interested in devoting attention to the tides, as to the other phænomena of the system. It will be sufficient to observe, every year, the instant of time, and the heights of the low and high tides, in the two syzigies, and in the two following quadratures which comprehend each equinox and solstice. The observation of the altitudes of the tides is attended with no difficulty: but that of the instants of time for the high and low tide is not so easy. It may however be determined with precision, by taking a mean between the two instants when the sea is at the same height, a quarter of an hour nearly before and after the high or low tide. A long series of observations of this kind, compared with the corresponding positions of the sun and moon, will rectify the elements obtained by me in this work; will fix those which are as yet uncertain; and will explain those phænomena which are yet involved in the errors of observations.'

M. DE LA PLACE then proceeds to the analytical part, resuming the formulæ previously demonstrated in the volumes for 1775 and 1776.

In the course of the memoir are inserted nine tables.

The solution of this important and difficult problem *(le plus épineux de toute la mechanique céleste)* reflects becoming lustre and dignity on the last labours of the academy.

Experiments concerning Seed-Wheat. By HENRY ALEXANDER TESSIER.

These

These experiments were instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the two following questions: Is it always necessary to sow the seed of the last harvest? Is it necessary frequently to renew the seed; that is, to take it from another district or country?—If the usage of farmers be of weight, the question is already decided; for they almost invariably sow the seed of the last harvest only, and change the seed every two or three years. The experiments of M. Tessier were made with a variety of seeds of different ages, and tend to controvert the common opinion. Respecting the first question, he concludes from his experiments that ripe wheat is capable of preserving its germinative virtue, when not destroyed by animals or fermentation; and that the seed of the last harvest but one, better care being taken of it than of older seed, is very proper to be used. If, however, the cultivator be apprehensive that the grain has suffered any injury from insects or fermentation, he ought, previously to seed-time, to try experiments with a certain number of grains.

The advantages resulting from the establishment of the fact, that seed loses not its germinative virtue by keeping, will appear in these cases; first, When the grain of the last harvest has suffered by rottenness. 2dly, When the hail has injured the fields * of the farmer, so that his only resource is in the seed contained in his granaries. 3dly, When a retarded harvest (as it happens in some mountainous parts) approaches too nearly to the seed-time. 4thly, When the seed of the new harvest is of a quality superior to that of the preceding one; it being then the interest of the farmer, and of the public, that the wheat of the preceding year should be used as seed.

With regard to the second question; the author thinks, from the experiments of ten years, that he may venture to affirm that, within such a space of time, it is not necessary to renew the seed-wheat; and that it does not suffer a diminution of its qualities so speedily as some have supposed.

Memoir on the particular Integrals of differential Equations. *By* Adrien Marie le Gendre.

In a memoir presented to the Academy in 1734 by M. *Clairaut*, and proposing to give the solutions of "problems in which it is required to find curves of which the property consists in a certain relation between their branches, expressed by an equation," the author, observing the nature of the analytical process, made the following singular remark; "that there are

* This frequently happens in some of the southern provinces of France.

differential

differential equations capable of admitting two solutions, different from one another, of which one requires not the aid of the integral calculus; of such kind are the differential equations

$xdydx - dy^2 = ydx^2 - dydx$ * which the equations $4y = x^2 + 2x + 1$ and $2ax - 2x = -4y + 1 - aa$ equally satisfy, and $ady^2 + xdy^2 - ydydx = xdxdy - ydx^2$ which the equations $\frac{x}{\sqrt{y}} - \sqrt{y} = \sqrt{4a}$ and $bby - 2bx + 2by = -4a$ equally satisfy."

M. *Euler*, in a memoir entitled "*Exposition de quelques paradoxes dans le calcul intégral*," presented to the Academy and published in 1756, considered more particularly the nature of these differential equations which admitted of two integrations: placed them in a clearer point of view; and illustrated his reasoning by many examples drawn from geometry: but neither had this author at that time, nor had M. *Clairaut*, investigated the method of determining *à priori* whether a false equation, which satisfies a given differential equation, is comprised or not in the complete integral of this differential equation, without previously knowing this integral.

This was, however, afterward effected by *Euler* in the first volume of his *Calcul Intégral*. A more general and rigorous solution of the problem was exhibited by *D'Alembert* in the Paris Acts for the year 1769. M. *de la Place*, in a memoir for the year 1772, extended and perfected the theory of particular solutions; and, which had never been done before, he gave methods for finding directly all the particular solutions which could satisfy a given differential equation; and which should not be comprised in the general solution of the equation. Finally, a new and complete theory of this branch of analysis was exhibited by M. *La Grange*, in the Memoirs of Berlin for 1774.

In the present memoir, the subject of the particular integrations of differential equations is resumed by M. Le Gendre; who proposes to demonstrate a new principle, from which, says he, 'results a method more direct than those already given, for distinguishing the particular integrals from those which are only incomplete; and for deducing the former immediately from the proposed differential equation.' His principle is that 'the particular integrals are always comprised in a finite equation, where the number of arbitrary constant quantities is less

* This equation, by the fluxionary notation, is $xx'y - y^2 = yx'^2 - y\dot{x}$.

than

than in the complete integral.' He acknowleges that his principle, and its demonstration, are consequences very easy to be deduced from the theory of M. *La Grange*.—At the end of the memoir, a new solution of the tautochronous curve is given.

Remarks on the Muscles situated at the Forepart of the Neck. By RAPHAEL BIENVENU SABATIER.

In the enumeration and description of muscles, M. SABATIER was the first who adopted the excellent method of Albinus, although this method was known in 1734. Albinus divides the body into 48 parts. M. SABATIER divides it into 28 only, for reasons set forth in his treatise on anatomy. In the twentieth division, are comprised those muscles which are situated in the forepart of the neck: but this division does not contain all the muscles which are in the corresponding division of Albinus. The consideration of the muscles of the 20th division is resumed by M. SABATIER, and treated in this memoir with greater nicety and exactness than in his treasise before mentioned.

Observations on the right Muscles of the Belly. By the same.

The changes observed in the muscles of the belly, by Albinus and Dupuy, are here confirmed by the observations of the present writer.

Second Memoir on the Hail Storm, which happened on Sunday, July 13th 1788. By M. M. LE ROI, BUACHE, and TESSIER.

In the volume for the preceding year, a report was made on this storm, which traversed France, part of Flanders, and of Holland, a space of 200 leagues, in eight hours. The present memoir, in pursuance of an order of the Academy to inquire particularly into the circumstances of the event, contains an exact and detailed account of the direction, the ravages, and the duration of the tempest, and of the loss which France sustained by it.—The storm passed in the direction of two parallel *bands* *. The one commenced on the coast of Aulnis, traversed Poitou, Tourraine, the province of Orleans, Isle de France, Picardy, French Flanders, and penetrated into Austrian Flanders, Zealand, and Holland. The other, commencing in Saintonge, traversed the same provinces as the first, and those parts of Brabant and Holland which were in the same line with it.

The mean distance between the *bands* was five leagues and a quarter. The whole length of one was 165 leagues; and that of the other, 200 leagues. The direction of the storm was

* The French word is *bandes*, which is not easily translated: the idea meant to be conveyed may be best conceived perhaps by the word *strip*, or *stripe*.

from south-west to north-east. It was everywhere preceded by such darkness, that, although the day was advanced, it was impossible to write or read without a light. In seven hours, it traversed all the parts of France which suffered by it; the velocity of the wind being 16½ leagues, or 49½ miles, in an hour.

The hail-stones were irregular in their form; some being round, others long and pointed; the largest weighed one-half pound at most.—The duration of the fall of hail in each place did not exceed eight minutes.—No human being was killed by the hail-stones, but many animals were destroyed or maimed; buildings were overthrown; trees were rooted up, or stripped of their branches; grain and vines were destroyed, &c.—The known loss to France was 24,962,093 livres.

Observations on the first Comet of 1790, *discovered in England by Miss* Herschel; *observed at Paris, from the Marine Observatory, the* 19*th and* 20*th January.* By CHARLES MESSIER.

This comet was discovered at Slough, near Windsor, on the 7th January, and information of it was communicated by Dr. Herschel to the French astronomers; who began to observe it from the 18th January. In the present memoir are given two Systems of Elements, calculated by the President of Saron. The second has been already published in the *Connoissance des Temps* for 1792, p. 354.

Observations on the second Comet of 1790, *discovered at Paris by* P. F. A. Méchain, *January* 9*th; observed at the Marine Observatory from the* 11*th to the* 21*st of the same Month.* By the Same.

This is the sixty-third comet of the system, of which the orbit is calculated. Two tables are given in this memoir; 1st, Of its apparent positions; 2d, Of the right ascensions and declinations of the stars with which the comet of 1790 has been compared; their positions being reduced to the time of the observations.

Observations on the third Comet of 1790, *discovered in England by Miss* Herschel, *on the Morning of April* 17, *observed at Paris from the Marine Observatory from the* 1*st of May to the* 29*th of July.* By the Same.

Observations of Eight Thousand Northern Stars, made at the Military School, with a Mural Quadrant of the Radius of 7½ *Feet.* By JEROME DE LA LANDE.

These papers require no particular remark.

Memoir on the Algebraical Relation between the true and mean Anomaly. By A. P. DIONIS-DU SÉJOUR.

When

When the true anomaly is given, the mean anomaly may easily be found: but, when the mean anomaly is given, it is not so easy to determine the true; since it is necessary to resolve an equation which involves an arc and the sine of that arc.—To facilitate the solution of the problem, a series is used which expresses, by a very near approximation, the true anomaly, when the mean is given:—but, although this determination is sufficiently exact for astronomical purposes, since the eccentricities of the orbits of the planets are very small; yet, in strictness of geometrical language, the solution is not rigorous. M. DU SÉJOUR, therefore, proposes in this memoir to shew that there exists a simple and rigorous equation between the true and mean anomaly; and of such a nature that, the time being given, the true anomaly may be expeditiously determined.

Observation of the Passage of Mercury over the Sun's Disk, 5th November 1789; *made at the Marine Observatory.* By CHARLES MESSIER.

This memoir contains some farther observations on the spots on the sun.

Mémoir containing, 1*st, Observations of four Epochs of the Disappearances and Reappearances of the Handles of Saturn's Ring, (anses de l'anneau,) in* 1789 *and* 1790.—2*dly, Observations on various luminous Points, frequently seen on the Handles of the Ring, and on the Shadow of the Ring projected on Saturn's Disk.*—3*dly, Observations of three Oppositions of Saturn to the Sun in* 1788, 1789, *and* 1790, *made for the Purpose of determining the Place of that Planet.*—4*thly, A Chart of the apparent Path of Saturn, which represents the four Observations of the Disappearances and Reappearances of the Handles of the Ring.* By CHARLES MESSIER.

These observations were made at the Marine Observatory at Paris. They suggest no particular remark:—nor does the following:—

Observation of the total Eclipse of the Moon in the Night of the 22*d and* 23*d of October* 1790, *made at the Marine Observatory of Paris.* By the Same.

Memoir on the Friction of the Points of Pivots. By CHARLES AUGUSTIN COULOMB.

The author of this memoir published, in the 9th volume of the *Savans Etrangers*, an Essay on the Friction which the Points of Pivots and their Caps experience: but the experiments there adduced being neither sufficiently numerous, nor made with satisfactory precision, the theory of friction could not receive

present 800 leagues from the river Senegal to the Nile, on which scarcely an European has trodden, and of which our knowlege is extremely imperfect *.

The present memoir is divided into two parts. In the first, the author endeavours to prove that the course of the Niger or Senegal is from the eastern parts of Africa to the western; in the second, he treats of the Interior of Africa, and points out the means of exploring it, and even of traversing it from the mouth of the Senegal to the Red Sea.

We must forbear, on account of want of room, to quote the various and important authorities adduced by M. DE LA LANDE in support of his opinion. What he has done will no doubt answer the end proposed by him, viz. that of exciting curiosity and the spirit of enterprise, by shewing how much is to be known, and by what means it may be attained. His labours will also be useful to those of our own countrymen, who are already engaged in inquiries concerning the Interior Parts of Africa.

Memoir on the Necessity and Means of arming Buildings with Conductors, to preserve them from Lightning. By J. B. LEROY.

On the subject of conductors much has been written: some authors prefer the knobb'd; others, those which are pointed. The prevalent practice in England is in favour of the latter kind; but still the subject is clouded with many doubts; and in fact it must necessarily be so, since the theory of lightning, &c. is by no means clearly and satisfactorily established. When a Leyden phial is charged, the inside is said to be in a positive state, the outside in a negative; the former has a superabundance of electric fluid, the latter a deficiency.

Analagous to this case, it is contended, is that of the air, earth, &c. in a thunder storm; an electric cloud answers to the inside coating of the Leyden phial, the earth to the outside; the cloud is in a *positive* state, the earth in a negative,—or contrariwise; and when a discharge takes place, the equilibrium between the cloud and the earth is restored. Without adducing arguments and facts, however, and many may be brought against this theory, a much more obvious and reasonable analogy offers itself, in making two different clouds answer to the two surfaces of the electrical jar, and the earth to operate simply as a conductor between these two clouds, when in the relative states of superabundance and deficiency. The excellence of the construction of a conductor must then depend on the truth of one or another of these theories. If the latter theory be true, if

* The work of Mr. Park, however, which has been just published, but which we have not yet had time to read, will probably afford much curious and important information on this subject.

the

the earth acts merely as a conductor, then a pointed conductor erected at the gable end of a house, or elsewhere, can be of small use; or, it may even be the cause of destruction to the building which it was meant to protect: for the conductor, elevating itself towards a charged cloud, by rendering the communication between the two clouds sufficiently complete, may invite the stroke which would otherwise not have taken place, or perhaps have gone by a different route.

The author of the present memoir gives directions for the construction of his *paratonnèrres*, or pointed conductors: but their construction does not differ essentially from that of conductors usually erected in England. According to his own confession, buildings have been struck by lightning even when armed by these conductors; a fact in our minds by no means remarkable, but a strong argument against the utility which they are intended to promote, and the truth of the system on which they are constructed.

Application of the Circle to observe the Meridian Altitudes of Stars. By JEAN DOMINIQUE CASSINI.

In this short memoir, we find mention of the observations which were first made by means of the entire circle, introduced as an astronomical instrument, by *Borda*; and which was remarkable for its precision and exactness. M. *de la Lande* has described this instrument in his *Connoissance des Temps* for 1798.

Observations of Stars, made at the Military School, with a Mural Quadrant of seven Feet and Half; in 1784 *and* 1785. By JOSEPH LEPAUTE D'AGELET.

An account of the labours of this young astronomer is published in the *Journal des Savans* for 1791; and also, with additions, in the *Connoissance* for 1798. He left France in 1785 with M. *de la Pérouse*, and shared the fate of that celebrated and lamented navigator.

Some papers on Chemistry, and on other subjects, remain to be noticed: but these we must defer to another opportunity.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. X. *Abrégé des Mémoires*, &c.; *i. e.* An Abridgment of the Memoirs illustrative of the History of Jacobinism, by the Abbé BARRUEL. 8vo. pp. 500. 6s. sewed. Dulau and Co. London. 1798.

THIS abridgment is far less exceptionable than the original work, and forms a very convenient compendium of its facts and principles. It is divided into six parts.

The first part analyzes the anti-christian conspiracy of the French philosophers; a conspiracy, as we have already ob-

served, completely established; and which, as we conceive, is likely yet to succeed in all catholic countries, where the public religion has certainly not those characters which adapt it for credibility in an age of information. We should expect that it will be least successful in Denmark, where the magistrate has withdrawn the national act of uniformity; and where the public religion has nearly found that level, to which Christianity tends in the present state of literary inquiry.

The second part examines the supposed conspiracy of the sophists of rebellion against kings. When a rebellion is already undertaken under a royal form of government, it very naturally adopts a speculative hostility to monarchy, as a mean of strength. Traces, therefore, of this *à posteriori* enmity are to be found in the recent writers of the French:—but of a previously concerted plan for the abolition of monarchy, we still look in vain for the symptoms. The writings of *Rousseau* alone, and he was kept aloof by the other philosophers of France from their combination-rooms, tended decisively that way. The private correspondence of *D'Alembert* offers evidence indeed of his individual republicanism: but, as he did not publish these opinions, they do not evince the system of the party. *Beaumelle* is not named by the Abbé.

The death-bed penitence of the anti-christian philosophers, which rests, we believe, on very satisfactory evidence, should have been narrated in the first chapter; for they are not stated to have repented of republicanism, but of atheism.

Part III. enters on the general spirit and tendency of the powerful and diffusive sect of free-masons. We have already given our reasons for believing (vol. xxv. p. 307) that the opinions of the free-masons were rather a consequence than a cause of the national spirit of *France*; and were neither essentially nor systematically directed to revolutionary ends. In addition to the arguments already adduced, be it observed that, out of two hundred songs of the free-masons, collected in *Van Laak's Lire Maçonne*, and accompanied for the use of the fraternity with the usual tunes, not above four contain any sentiments which could be perverted by the sophists of tyranny into invitations to sedition. If any of the poets invoke the muse Eleutheria, it is Monsieur *de Vigneles*.

The story of the mimic assassination, copied from *Montjoye*'s Romance, is here repeated (p. 161) with unabated confidence. The derivation of the Masons from the Templars, and not from the Rosicrucians, is also still maintained: although the introduction of a degree of Knights Templars appears to be long posterior to the institution of the Masonic order. They are also derived (p. 187) from the Albigenses; as if it were necessary to fling every schism into the cauldron whence this quin-

quintessential heresy is to be distilled. Ramsay's *Masonry Dissected*, 1731, gives the first hint of occult lodges; which had probably in view the restoration of the Stuarts.

The fourth part relates to Illuminism, of which we have spoken enough, vol. xxvii. p. 512. Secret societies are not likely to flourish much under any government which tolerates and courts publicity. The celebrated *Herder* probably alludes to this association in the second volume of his Letters on Humanization, (p. 143,) where he so beautifully sketches the idea of a perfect sect.

The fifth part continues the same subject. The map of the provincial distribution of the lodges recalls to mind the interior government of the English Anabaptists.

Part VI. contains the ridiculously unsuccessful attempt of the Abbé, to attribute the enormities of the Parisian proscribers to the Illuminés of Germany.

Extracts cannot be necessary from a book which is itself all extract from volumes already noticed in detail. The work has gained in neatness of arrangement; and it retains those brilliant and eloquent passages which so agreeably relieve the reader.

ART. XI. *Annales de Chimie*; i. e. Chemical Annals, by Citizens GUYTON, MONGE, BERTHOLLET, FOURCROY, ADET, HASENFRATZ, &c. &c. 8vo. Paris. 1798, 1799.

ACCORDING to the promise in our last Appendix, we now again pay our respects to this very important work. We begin at No. 67, or Vol. XXIII, and shall pursue the Number as far down as they have yet reached us: noticing, in our usual manner, the more important original papers:—but the XXIIId volume seems to be less rich than any of the succeeding in articles of this description.

Account of an Instrument proper for measuring the Bulk of Bodies, without plunging them into any Liquid. By M. H. SAY.

This paper requires the accompanying plate, in order to be properly understood.

Analysis of the Earth from the Pulo of Molfette in Apulia. By M. PELLETIER.

This earth contains above 40 parts of nitrat of potash in one hundred.

Some notes by the Abbé FORTIS, on this natural nitre bed, shew how miserably so rare a treasure was managed under the old Neapolitan government.

Extract from two Memoirs on Cork. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

It appears from this paper that the acid of cork differs, in the proportion of its principles, and in its properties, from all other vegetable acids. It is not crystallizable, which distinguishes it from the citric acid: its precipitates of iron are yellow:—it is entirely volatilized by heat; — and it is obtainable in a concrete form; which last circumstance distinguishes it from the malic acid. It takes away metallic substances from the nitrous acid; as also iron, copper, and zinc, from the sulphuric; and it forms salts, all more or less deliquescent.

Extract from a Memoir, by M. PROUST, *on Prussian Blue.*

M. PROUST informs us that there are two sulphats of iron, —one green, crystallizable, containing $\frac{27}{100}$ of oxygen, insoluble in spirit of wine, unalterable by gallic acid, and yielding not a blue but a white precipitate to alkaline prussiates:—the other, red, deliquescent, not crystallizable, soluble in alcohol, and containing $\frac{48}{100}$ of oxygen. This sulphat has exclusively the property of giving a blue colour with alkaline prussiats. Prussian blue, kept in a phial with water impregnated with sulphurated hydrogen, loses the portion of oxygen, which makes the difference between the white and the blue sulphat; and the prussiat, thus reduced to whiteness, has exactly the same properties with regard to alkalies, as the white prussiat made immediately from the green sulphat.

Letter of M. BARTHOLDI *on a Calculus from the Rectum of a Horse.*

The experiments here related give for the constituent parts of this calculus,

Magnesia	0,18
Phosphoric acid	0,26
Ammoniac	0,032
Water	0,46
Animal matter	0,04

Extract from a Memoir on Camphor. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

The author concludes that camphor is an oil rendered concrete by carbon; for, by addition of alumine and distillation, there may be obtained a volatile oil and carbon. By nitre and acid may be obtained an acid different from all vegetable acids in its crystallization; in its solubility in the cold; in its burning without residuum; in its not precipitating lime-water; in its producing no change on indigo, dissolved in sulphuric acid; and in forming peculiar salts, which give to the blowpipe a blue flame.—A second paper occurs below.

On the spontaneous Action of concentrated Sulphuric Acid on Animal and Vegetable Substances. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.

We

We learn from this ingenious memoir that sulphuric acid is not decompounded by vegetable substances, but that, by the action of this acid, the oxygen and hydrogen of the vegetable partly unite to form water, and partly with carbon to form acetous acid; while the residuum of the carbon is separated.

From the experiments with sulphuric acid and alcohol, it is concluded that alcohol differs from ether in containing more carbon, and less hydrogen and oxygen; and that oil of wine is to ether nearly what ether is to alcohol;—that the formation of ether is not due to the immediate action of the principles of the sulphuric acid on those of the alcohol, but to a real re-action of the elements of the alcohol, *occasioned* only by the sulphuric acid; that the operation is divided into two principal periods, in only one of which ether and water form; in the other, oil of wine, water, and acetous acid; and that, as long as ether forms, the sulphuric acid is not decompounded.

Observations on a native Sulphat of Strontian. By M. GUYTON.

This author finds sulphat of strontian mixed with sulphat of barytes, in a specimen from Saxony.

Reports concerning the State in which Saltpetre ought to be delivered into the Magazines of the Republic; and concerning the Manner of judging of its Qualities. By M. GUYTON.

This very important dissertation will be found of great consequence where nitre is manufactured in Europe.

Memoir on Senna. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

Some things of importance to those who take and those who administer this drug will here be found. The cold infusion, according to the author, should always be preferred, and the decoction totally rejected. Senna may be well given in powder along with sugar.

Extract from a Memoir on the odoroscopic Effects from inodorous cold and hot Bodies, and of odorous Substances. By M. PREVOST.

A paper full of curious and minute experiments.

Observations on Phosphorus. By M. BRUGUATELLI.

The theory of Prof. *Göttling*, of which we spoke in a former Appendix, seems to have afforded occupation for a time to half the chemists of the continent, and has at least had the good effect of making us better acquainted with the relation of phosphorus to oxygen and other gases. From the experiments before us, it is inferred that phosphorus dissolves very readily in pure oxygen, but without shining;—that the phosphorated oxygen gas becomes luminous as soon as it is mixed with any unrespirable gas;—that phosphorus dissolves with equal

promptitude in inflammable gas;—that oxygenated muriatic acid quickly fires phosphorus;—that phosphorus is not soluble in pure carbonic acid gas, though, at about the temperature of 60°, it shines better in this gas mixed with a small proportion of oxygen than in atmospheric air;—that water does not dissolve phosphorus, but holds in suspension very minute portions; especially such as have been impregnated with a principle of combustion;—that phosphorus, fired at the bottom of a balloon, where a little water has been put, not only decompounds the oxygen of the air in which it burns, but also that contained in the water;—that phosphorized oil of turpentine, or of thyme, is not luminous in atmospheric air at the ordinary temperature;—that alcohol dissolves phosphorus, which becomes luminous when the solution is added to any substance that combines with the alcohol, as water, or sulphuric acid;—that ether also dissolves phosphorus;—and that this solution is not decompounded by water, but when it is diluted with alcohol, then the ether, in combining with water, abandons the phosphorus; which, being divided into very minute particles, renders the liquor milky.

Memoir on the Proportion of Light produced by different Combustibles. By J. H. HASSENFRATZ.

In this accurate paper, conclusions different from those of Count Rumford are drawn. According to the price of the articles at Paris, tallow candles, particularly when old, afford a more œconomical light than the Argand lamp. These lamps, fed with spermaceti oil, are thrice as expensive as old candles.

Observations and Experiments on the Formation of Sulphat of Soda in Brine, at a Temperature below freezing; and an easy Method of separating the deliquescent Salts.

The observations in this paper are interesting both to the philosophical chemist and the salt-manufacturer.

Observations on the Acid of Tin, and the Analysis of Tin Ores. By M. GUYTON.

M. *Klaproth* had attributed the difficult solubility of tin ores, in acid menstrua, to the oxygen which they contain. M. GUYTON, however, perceiving no trace of disoxygenation in the operations by which M. *Klaproth* effected their solution, doubted this explanation; and he here relates facts which lead him to attribute the difficult solubility to the state of aggregation of the substances contained in the ore.

Inquiry whether the Formation of Carbonic Acid be essential to Vegetation. By M. DE SAUSSURE, jun.

M. DE

M. DE S. concludes, from his experiments, that plants as well as animals, vegetating in atmospheric air, continually form carbonic acid, both in the light and in the shade;—that they form it with the oxygen of the atmosphere;—that, when the production of the acid is not perceived, it is decompounded in proportion as it is formed;—that the presence, or rather the elaboration, of carbonic acid is necessary to vegetation in the light;—that light favours vegetation, inasmuch as it contributes to the decomposition of carbonic acid;—and that the strongest proportion of carbonic acid, which favours vegetation in the light, is injurious in the shade.

Objections to Spallanzani's Opinion on the Cause of the Light of natural Phosphori. By M. J. CARRADERI.

These objections seem perfectly founded. M. *Spallanzani* supposed that the phosphorescence of insects, wood, &c. is a slow combustion: but the present author observes that it takes place under oil.

Memoir designed to serve towards the History of the Sulphureous Acid, and its saline Combinations with the Alkalies and the Earths. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.

From this very important memoir, we learn that the sulphits have no smell; that some have a sharp pungent taste; others not, but that all, after some time, leave an impression of sulphureous acid in the mouth; and that, when exposed to heat, they undergo two sorts of decomposition—either a portion of the sulphur separates, and they are converted into sulphats; or the sulphureous acid is disengaged, and the base remains pure;—that they are all, by the contact of oxygen, converted sooner or later into sulphats, and increase in weight;—that some sulphats are soluble in water, others scarcely so, but that all become soluble by excess of sulphureous acid;—that they are decompounded by almost all the acids, but that the result of the decomposition is different; some acids, as the sulphuric and muriatic, expelling the sulphureous unchanged; others on the contrary, as the nitrous, communicating oxygen, and converting the sulphit into sulphat;—that alkalies and earths act on these salts according to their affinity to the sulphureous acid, barytes decomposing all the other sulphits, then lime, potash, soda, magnesia, ammoniac, and alumine; having in their order the strongest affinity;—that most neutral or secondary salts act on the sulphits by double affinity, and form new compounds; thus calcareous, magnesian, barytic, and aluminous salts are decompounded by alkaline sulphits; and in all these cases earthy sulphits are formed, which, being soluble, fall down;—that, sulphit of ammonia excepted, all are con-

verted by charcoal and heat into sulphurs;—that some metallic oxyds, having but little affinity to oxygen, are reduced by the sulphits, which then become sulphats; others equally convert them into sulphats, but by a contrary action, viz. taking away a portion of sulphur;—that all metallic solutions, especially by the mineral acids, are decompounded by the sulphits; and metallic sulphits, for the most part insoluble, are formed;—that several of the metals, as gold, are precipitated in the reduced state by the sulphits, which then become sulphats;—that almost all the alkaline and earthy sulphits are insoluble in alcohol;—that they are decompounded by some vegetable acids, as the oxalic, the tartaric, and the citric, but not by the acetous or acetic, nor the benzoic.

New Means of furnishing Water and Heat for Chemical Experiments, almost without Expence. By M. GUYTON.

This ingenious paper deserves attention from all those who are desirous of engaging, from any motive, in chemical researches, and who have not the convenience of an elaboratory. The means here described consist principally of an Argand's lamp, fitted up in a peculiar manner, as represented in an annexed engraving.

Examination of certain Properties of Platina. By the Same.

In this paper, the cohesive force of platina, and its adhesion to the surface of mercury, are determined. It is also shewn that platina amalgamates by the assistance of heat; and that when hot it is oxydated by oxygenated muriat of potash.

Memoir on a new Metallic Substance contained in the Red Lead of Siberia. By M. VAUQUELIN.

The author compares the acid of this new metal with that of molybdaena, and concludes with a hope of being able to lay the new metal itself before the National Institute, as soon as he shall procure a sufficient supply of the mineral. He proposes to call it *chrome*, because it colours all its combinations. With potash, it forms a bright yellow salt.

Second Memoir on Siberian Red Lead. By the Same.

M. VAUQUELIN here describes the reduction of the acid of the red lead. Seventy-two parts afforded a metallic button of 24 parts. The metal was a grey white mass, formed of interlacing needles. He expresses a hope that, although the fragility and infusibility of this metal promise few useful applications, yet the acid, in combination with the metallic oxyds, and the oxyd with glass, may supply the painter and the enameller with fine and solid colours.

On the Acid Juice of the Pine-Apple. By P. A. ADET.

The slight experiments here recorded indicate the citric and malic acids.

On the Tanning Principle. By M. PROUST.

This philosopher has contrived to separate this principle completely from the astringent principle, or the acid of galls, by adding decoction of galls to muriat of tin. The tanning principle forms an insoluble precipitate; and, by adding water impregnated with sulphurated hydrogen, the tanning principle is liberated, and dissolves in the water. The last decoctions of galls contain, as the author thinks, this principle almost pure. A solution of glue is precipitated by the tanning principle into a magma, possessing all the properties of the gluten of wheat.

Observations on Sulphurated Hydrogen. By M. BERTHOLLET.

This excellent chemist, whose name has lately appeared but seldom in the Annals, and is destined to appear still more rarely in future, here presents us with a series of facts, which throw more light on the object of his researches than all preceding experiments. Sulphurated hydrogen, dissolved in water, reddens tincture of turnsol; combines with alkalies and absorbent earths, forming combinations which, when mixed with metallic solutions, change bases; decompounds soap, and takes the place of the oils; precipitates great part of the sulphur from solutions of sulphur of potash and lime, and tends to form, with the remainder, a triple combination. Sulphurated hydrogen therefore possesses all the properties which characterize the acids; and, if a number of common properties did not determine the author to constitute a separate genus of the compound hydrogens, he thinks that it ought incontestably to rank with the acids.—Combinations of sulphur with alkali cannot exist but in the dry state. Water is decompounded to a greater or less extent, according to circumstances. He calls the combination of sulphur and sulphurated hydrogen with an alkaline base, *an hydrogenated sulphur*. The neutral compound, formed by saturating a base with sulphurated hydrogen, is called an *hydrosulphur*. When sulphur finds hydrogen in any substance, as charcoal or sugar, it can produce sulphurated hydrogen without decompounding water. Thus is probably formed *hydrogenated sulphur* of ammonia, which an excess of ammonia renders fuming.—Hydrosulphurs speedily undergo an alteration from the action of oxygen, which combines with hydrogen; so that, on the least contact of the air, they assume a yellow tint, and are at last transformed into hydrogenated sulphurs.—When alkaline sulphurs decompound water, a quantity of *sulphuric* acid in proportion is formed: but, when the hydrogenated sulphurs, or the hydrosulphurs, are formed by the action of the air, it is always sulphureous acid that is first formed.

After

After some observations on the union of metals and the above-named bodies, it is remarked that, by sulphurated hydrogen and alkaline hydrosulphur, the smallest quantity of metal in a solution may be detected; and, as all the metals, except oxyd of arsenic, are precipitated by hydrosulphur, and the earths are not, (except alumine, which can be taken up again by potash,) after having dissolved all that is soluble of a mineral substance, the separation of the earthy and metallic parts may be immediately effected.

Notice of a Memoir by M. GUYTON, *on the Tables of the Composition of Salts.*

A very curious difficulty is here started against the computations of the ingredients of saline bodies. There ought, by calculation, in some double decompositions, to be an excess of acid or alkali: but the mixture is always neutral.

Discovery of a Violet Purple Colour which resists Acids, Alkalies, and Oxygen, in the Leaves of the Socotrine Aloe. By S. FABBRONI.

Observations on the Fabrication of Verdegris, and of Crystals of Venus. By J. A. CHAPTAL.

The processes in use at Montpellier are here minutely described, and a proposal is offered for improving the latter.

On Areometry. By J. H. HASSENFRATZ. 1st Memoir.

Of this series of papers, which appear to be far superior to any thing yet written on the subject, we shall speak when the whole is brought to a conclusion.

Description of the Manner in which Whiting is prepared. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

Notice of an Acid obtained from Animal Substances, or the Zoonic Acid. By M. BERTHOLLET.

To obtain this acid, lime is added to the liquid distilled from animal substances, after the separation of the oil. The mixture is boiled, or distilled, to drive off the carbonat of ammonia. When the pungent smell ceases, the liquor is filtered, a little lime is added, and the whole is boiled till the odour of ammonia entirely ceases. What remains is *zoonate* of lime; which is once more filtered; and a little carbonic acid is added to precipitate the lime.

The liquor is the zoonate of lime, with which double decompositions may be effected. To obtain the zoonic acid, phosphoric acid is added, and distillation is performed. The zoonic rises at about the heat of boiling water. It has a smell like frying meat: but no striking properties have yet been discovered.—

It is suggested, in a subsequent number, that this acid may be the sebaceous acid!

Analysis of the Chrysolite of the Jewellers, or of Commerce. By M. VAUQUELIN.

This chrysolite gave 54, 28 of pure lime and 45, 72 of acid of phosphorus; which agrees exactly with M. *Klaproth's* analysis of the apatite.

Analysis of the Beryl. By the Same.

The principal part of this paper is employed in detailing the chemical properties of a new earth, found in the beryl, and also in the emerald. This earth approaches nearer to alumine than to any of the other earths, but has a stronger attraction for nitrous acid, and differs in many of its habitudes with regard to precipitants. The most characteristic property of this earth is to form sweet salts; and hence the editors of the Annals propose to call it *glucine.*

Observations on the Means and the Necessity of cultivating Barilla in France. By J. A. CHAPTAL.

Memoir on the Liquid Storax. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

This substance is composed of the benzoic acid and a resin. The best method of purifying storax is to make a tincture of it with alcohol by distillation. In preparing ointments with storax, and with resins in general, too much heat should not be given, because they are easily decomposed. There is a great difference between ointment with storax purified by alcohol, and that by heat.

Chemical Observations on the Epidermis. By. J. A. CHAPTAL.

The skin is dissolved by the continued action of hot water, but not the epidermis. Alcohol long digested on the epidermis does not attack it. Caustic alkali and lime dissolve it.

Pyrometrical Essays, to determine how far Charcoal is a Nonconductor of heat. By M. GUYTON.

A body surrounded by charcoal does not receive above $\frac{1}{3}$ of the heat of another surrounded by siliceous sand.

Memoir on the Spiritus Rector, the Aroma, or Principle of Smell of Vegetables. By M. FOURCROY.

In this elaborate paper, a number of erroneous ideas are corrected. The author shews that there is no particular principle which can be regarded as the *spiritus rector.* The smell always depends on some of the immediate principles of the plant. This may be extractive, or mucilagenous, as in borage; of a fugacious oily nature, as in jasmine; of an oily volatile nature, as in mint; of an aromatic and acid nature, as in benjamin; or of an hydrosulphureous nature, as in the distilled water of cabbage.

On

On the Effect of Mordants in dyeing Cotton red. By J. A. CHAPTAL.

In disentangling the perplexed process for dyeing with madder, this gentleman finds a combination of three mordants necessary, viz. oil, the astringent principle, and alum.

Analysis of the Emerald of Peru. By M. VAUQUELIN.

This author finds that the emerald and the beryl are composed of the same principles; the colouring matter excepted; which, in the emerald, is the new metal *chrome*.

On the Use of Oxyds of Iron in dyeing Cotton. By J. A. CHAPTAL.

M. CHAPTAL ridicules the attachment of dyers to this or that acid for a solvent of iron. He says that, by the following simple method, all the shades which can be desired may be obtained, by only varying the strength of the solution. Cotton is put into a cold solution of sulphat of iron, at 3° of the areometer. It is taken out, strongly expressed at the peg, and plunged into a ley of potash at 2°, into which solution of alum is poured to saturation.

Historical Notice respecting M. Bayen. By M. LASSUS.

'*Bayen*, who in all his operations sought only the truth, and yielded only to evident proofs, because the habit of experiment had rendered him distrustful, began by doubting the existence of phlogiston. He communicated his doubts to some friends, and at last to the celebrated *Macquer*, who did not approve them. It was principally in working on the precipitates of mercury, that *Bayen* became fully convinced of the falsehood of *Stahl*'s doctrine; and that he acquired evidence that metallic oxyds owed their weight to the absorption of one of the constituent parts of atmospheric air. He made experiments so exact, that he succeeded in calculating the weight of the substance fixed in the metal. When he came to offer to the Academy of Sciences these researches, *Lavoisier* was present. He also was employed on metallic oxyds. Enlightened by the ray which was cast on science, *Lavoisier* re-enters his elaboratory, repeats *Bayen*'s experiments, finds them exact, and discovers that a portion of the air obtained from metallic calces is much purer than that of the atmosphere. *Lavoisier*, then breaking the shackles of ordinary rules, and applying his vast conceptions to the whole of the science, tears the veil which *Bayen* had only lifted, and becomes the founder of one of the most memorable epochs of chemistry.'

Researches concerning the Gas produced in the Passage of Aqueous Vapour through red-hot Tubes. By DEIMAN, TROOSTWYK, and LAWRENBURGH.

These authors evidently prove that, on preventing the access of air to the earthen tubes, no gas appears; and that therefore the supposed production of azotic gas is occasioned simply by the penetration of the external air.

Analysis

Analysis of the Ruby Spinel. By M. VAUQUELIN.

One hundred parts contain	Alumine -	86,00
	Magnesia -	8,50
	Chromic acid	5,25

Second Memoir on the Camphoric Acid, and its saline Combinations with Alkalie and Earths. By B. DE LA GRANGE.

M. DE LA G. goes through these compounds in their order, but we do not observe any remarkable results.

Apparatus of M. Welther to saturate Potash or Soda with Carbonic Acid.

This complicated apparatus is absolutely unintelligible without the plates.

On fulminating Explosions produced with different Bodies by Acid of Phosphorus. By M. BRUGUATELLI.

In this paper, and in the addition by M. *Van Mons*, it is shewn that various nitrats and other bodies, as turbeth mineral, produce explosions when struck on an anvil with phosphorus. Pyrophorus and artificial phosphori, as they are called, also answer. Gold, precipitated by caustic fixed alkali, fulminates without admixture.

On the Death of several domestic Animals, occasioned by Washings of Phosphorus. By M. S.

These animals were fowls and turkeys. In the turkeys, nothing preternatural was found on dissection, except that the internal pellicle of the gizzard was a little hard or crisp, as if exposed to the action of strong heat. There were twenty-seven deaths in all, occasioned by severe convulsions, preceded by profound heaviness or melancholy. The stomachs were luminous in all; and grains of phosphorus, not yet digested, fell out on the turning out of the stomach, and shone on the ground.

A similar accident happened with M. *Pelletier*, who imputed it to phosphat of copper formed during the operation. The present writer ascribes the effect to simple phosphorus contained in the water, by which it had been washed after the preparation.

On the Ternary Combination of Phosphorus, Oxygen, and Azote. By M. F. HUMBOLDT.

Finding that in atmospheric air known to contain 27 or 28 of oxygen in 100, phosphorus did not produce a diminution of above 18 or 20; and nitrous gas, afterward added, not of above two more; the author concluded that a triple combination, or an oxydated phosphure of azote, must be formed. He infers, from his experiments, that phosphorus, whether burnt or simply

ply left to shine in contact with atmospheric air, is a very uncertain eudiometer:—that nitrous gas almost constantly detects some hundred parts of oxygen in the residue of the phosphoric eudiometer:—that the azotes, in which phosphorous gives no light, and which do not diminish with nitrous gas, can by no means be regarded as free from oxygen;—that phosphorus equally dissolves in azotic and oxygen gas;—and that oxyds with double base form a combination which nitrous gas cannot decompound.

Examination of Dr. PEARSON's *Experiments on Urinary Calculi.* By M. FOURCROY; *with a Note by M.* GUYTON.

In M. FOURCROY's long discussion, Dr. PEARSON's experiments and reasonings are considered at great length. The French reviewer endeavours to shew that there is nothing of importance new in the Doctor's experiments, and that he would improperly transfer the lithic acid to the class of oxyds, under the name of the *uric oxyd.* M. GUYTON concurs in the opinion of his colleague. We shall see what reply Dr. P. makes to these criticisms.

Memoir on the Acetic Acid. By P. A. ADET.

The acetic acid, or radical vinegar, has hitherto been supposed to differ considerably from the acetous in its degree of *concentrate* oxydation. The radical vinegar, as is well known, is obtained by distillation from acetate of copper. M. ADET endeavours to shew that the acid of vinegar, not absorbing oxygen in its successive combinations with that oxyd, does not occur in different states;—that it constantly exists at the highest state of oxygenation which it can attain, and that it is consequently in the state of acetic acid;—that there exists no *acetous* acid, unless this term be applied to the tartarous and malic acids;—and that the difference between acetic acid from acetate of copper, and that obtained from vinegar, appears to consist in the smaller quantity of water contained in the former.

On the Difference between the Acetous and the Acetic Acid. By J. A. CHAPTAL.

From the decomposition of these two forms of vegetable acid, M. CHAPTAL concludes, in opposition to M. ADET, that there is a difference between them;—that there is less carbon in the acetic acid;—that, in the metallic salts, the acid is in the state of acetous acid;—that it passes into the state of acetic acid only by *decarbonisation*;—and that, in this acid, the oxygen does not appear capable of either addition or subtraction.

New Experiments on the pretended Conversion of Water into Azote, by the Dutch Society of Chemists.

This

This paper only explains how atmospheric air found its way into an apparatus employed by Prof. *Wurger* of Bonn.

G. I. CHRISTIAN *on the Fabrication of Alum in the Department of the Ourte.*

On some Properties of Strontian, and of Barytes. By M. VAUQUELIN.

Strontian and barytes have, with respect to silex and alumine, very nearly the properties of the alkalies. They combine with the latter earths, and divide them in such a manner as to render them soluble in the weakest acids. Strontian and barytes act on animal substances also just as alkalies do; expelling much ammonia, and converting the other principles into a fatty matter.

Experiments on the Congelation of different Liquids by an artificial Cold of 40° *below* 0, *of* REAUMUR's *Thermometer.* By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.

Ammonia, slowly cooled from 30° to 33° below 0, crystallizes: exposed to a sudden cold of 38° or 40°, it forms a sort of glue, and has scarcely any smell. Ether crystallizes very regularly at 35° below 0. This was the first time that such a consolidation had been effected. Alcohol does not become solid at the same cold.

Experiments on artificial Cold. By M. GUYTON.

Ammoniacal gas, as much as possible deprived of water, is condensed into a liquid at 48° below 0. It resumes the elastic form, in proportion as the temperature approaches that of the atmosphere. The author proposes to repeat this experiment.

On the Nitrous Gas, and its Combination with Oxygen. By A. F. HUMBOLDT.

On the Cause and Effects of the Solubility of Nitrous Gas in the Sulphat of Iron. By M. M. HUMBOLDT and VAUQUELIN.

These are among the most curious and important papers in the whole series. Dr. Priestley discovered that nitrous gas is soluble in sulphat of iron. The two chemists above named have ascertained that a most remarkable chemical change takes place during this solution. Ammonia and nitrous acid are formed in consequence of the decomposition of the water of solution of the sulphat. The forces which effect these new combinations are, 1. the attraction of the oxygen of the water for the nitrous gas, whence we have nitrous acid. 2. the attraction of the uncombined azote, and of that which constitutes nitrous gas for the hydrogen of the water; whence we have ammonia. 3. the attraction of the sulphuric acid for ammonia, whence

whence sulphat of ammonia. 4. that of the nitrous acid for oxyd of iron.

By applying the fact of the absorption of nitrous gas by sulphat of iron, the author has ascertained the ordinary condition of this eudiometrical test more exactly than had been before done. He finds that it always contains azotic gas, particularly if the nitrous gas be not produced from nitric acid of a proper strength. As a part, however, of this uncombined azote is formed into ammonia with sulphat of iron, it was necessary to try the nitrous gas with oxygenated marine gas, which are known to decompound one another. From these comparative trials, it appeared that about 5 parts in 100 of the uncombined azote were condensed into ammonia on being agitated with sulphat of iron.

On the whole, the authors conclude, 1. that the quantity of nitrous gas necessary to saturate 1 part of oxygen differs widely from 1. 8; and that, if the constituents of nitric acid be = 3. 9 : 1, those of nitrous gas cannot be (as *Lavoisier* says) = 2. 1 : 1.

2. That solution of sulphat of iron totally absorbs nitrous gas, separating the intermixed azote.

3. That oxygenated marine acid gas always detects more azote in nitrous gas than sulphat of iron does; and that this difference, which amounts to 0. 05, comes from the azote combining with the hydrogen of water to form ammonia.

4. That, during the contact of metallic substances with nitric acid, part of the acid loses some of its oxygen while the rest is totally decompounded; whence all nitrous gas is mixed with azote from 0. 10 to 0. 15.

5. That, in mixing nitrous gas with oxygen in the mercurial apparatus, there is only formed so much liquid nitric acid as there is water in the gases. The absorption appears very small, because (as is seen on adding ammoniacal gas) it remains dilated in the gaseous form.

6. That, on shaking nitrous gas with distilled water, nitrat of ammonia is formed by decomposition of the water, and by the action of a double affinity.

7. That the width of the vessels, in which nitrous and oxygen gases are mixed, has a sensible effect on the quantity absorbed.

8. That mixtures of nitrous and oxygen gases do not present such uniform results, as when atmospheric air is employed.

9. That an artificial mixture of 0. 27 oxygen and 0. 73 azote differs from atmospheric air, because the azote of the latter, by a chemical attraction, appears to prevent the oxygen from combining so freely with the nitrous gas as it appears to do with oxygen gas.

10. In

10. In analysing, with sulphat of iron, the residue left in the eudiometer by mixtures of nitrous gas and atmospheric air, the quantity of oxygen contained in the atmospheric air can be very exactly determined.

11. That, dividing the bulk absorbed from equal parts of nitrous gas, (containing from 0. 10 to 0. 15 of azote,) and of atmospheric air, by 3. 55, the quotient will nearly give the quantity of oxygen contained in the analysed air.

On the Application of Pneumatic Chemistry to Medicine, and on the Medicinal Properties of Oxygenous Substances. By M. FOURCROY.

This able chemist here enters much at large into the consideration of these topics, in a memoir of nearly 60 pages. He observes that,

'Since the theory of elastic fluids has entirely changed the face of chemistry; since a more philosophical doctrine has formed, from all the discoveries respecting gases, the foundation of a new and important science; medicine, like every other part of the history of nature, could not but receive a lively and unexpected light. Before this remarkable era, it was perhaps permitted to the art of healing to remain indifferent respecting certain vague ideas thrown out from time to time, or even to reject too hasty applications, more likely to be hurtful than advantageous. Now a new career is open in all branches of philosophy; now we may hope that the functions of animals, hitherto surrounded by such dark clouds, will be illuminated by the new light of the pneumatic doctrine. I have no hesitation in advancing that modern chemistry has done more for physiology within twenty years, than all the other sciences put together, for a century past..... It is no longer permitted to the physician, to remain a mute and insensible spectator of the movement imparted to the science of the animal œconomy. No practitioner can neglect to inform himself of the newly discovered results, if he be interested in the progress of his profession; or if he be animated with proper zeal for the advancement of medicine. The cold immobility of some, the affected indifference of others, the decided contempt of this man, the listless attachment of another to the doctrine of his forefathers, irritated self-love, the hatred of novelties, prejudices of all kinds, all the little passions that creep into society, the pleasantries which they occasion, the sarcasms with which they arm conversation, the ridicule with which they endeavour to cover inventors, the epithet of innovator which is thrown out against them—all this may retard for a few hours, perhaps for a few years, the progress of the new ideas. Truth however overturns all obstacles, and dreads neither the clamour of envy, nor the resistance of prejudice, nor the opposition of ignorance.'

In concluding, M. FOURCROY mentions with approbation the attempts that have been made in this country, towards carrying on this important investigation.

Letter on the Fall of Dew. By M. A. PRIEUR.

This author thinks that the dew of the evening and that of the morning are not the same; in other words, that the evening dew evaporates in the night, and that there is a new fall towards morning. He applies the principles laid down by M. *Monge* in the 5th volume of the annals, to the solution of the phænomena.

Experiments on the Excrements of Hens, compared with their Nourishment; and Reflections on the Formation of Egg-Shells. By M. VAUQUELIN.

In this paper, some entertaining particulars of the natural history of the fowl are mentioned: but no great light is thrown on the formation of the egg-shell. By experiments on a hen, fed on oats only, the author found that the siliceous part was diminished: but there seems no reason for supposing that the quantity of silex which disappears goes to form the lime of the egg-shell. Ashes of oats contain about $\frac{6}{100}$ silex and $\frac{4}{100}$ phosphat of lime:—no alkali; nor carbonat of lime. He mentions that, on fusion, oats (straw and all) are converted into glass; and that the straw along with flint contains alkali and carbonat of lime.

Considerations on the Experiments of Mayow. By M. FOURCROY.

M. FOURCROY here reviews Mayow with evident partiality to *Lavoisier*. It is natural, therefore, that he should not do Mayow justice. In his paper, there are inaccuracies of various descriptions. Some do not affect his reasonings; others are material. Of the former kind, is the erroneous assertion that Dr. Beddoes reprinted Mayow's works in 1790. Of the latter, is the following passage: 'I ought to observe that Mayow has not pushed, so far as he seemed capable of doing, the first data that presented themselves to him; that the thread which he found soon broke in his hands; that he only opened a career of which he did not even suspect the extent; that he was not sufficiently struck with the importance and singularity of his first discoveries.'

This is, we think, far from a just representation. The thread in his hands was broken, not by any want of care to pursue it, but by the supreme necessity of death. Whoever will take the trouble of reading Mayow's dedication of his tracts to Coventry will see, that nothing can be more false than the supposition of his not being sufficiently struck by the importance of his discoveries. Never was Ευρηκα pronounced with more fervour. From this passage, and that in which M. FOURCROY speaks of Mayow in comparison with Boyle, we con-

clude that he was ignorant of the early period of life at which Mayow was cut off, and of the external relations of the two men.

On the Absorption of Oxygen by the simple Earths, and its Influence on the Culture of the Soil. By A. F. HUMBOLDT.

The author of this memoir here contents himself with relating facts, without assigning causes. He finds that not only mould but several of the simple earths have the property of taking oxygen from atmospheric air. The following experiment he made in the presence of M. *Vauquelin*.—Atmospheric air, containing 27 parts of oxygen, was put into a tube with phosphorus; another portion of the same air was put into a tube with clay from Montmartre. In 10 days, the phosphorus had absorbed but 0. 07 parts, and the clay 0. 10 of the oxygen. This and similar facts lead to many speculations on the state of the air in the interstices of the soil; on the formation of nitre; and so on.

On the Nature of the Acid of Amber. By M. GUYTON.

The experiments here related shew that the most certain method of purifying the succinic acid is by repeated cohobations with nitrous acid; taking care not to give a degree of heat capable of subliming the acid of amber;—that this acid ought to be ranked among those which are capable of being decompounded by a new combination of their base, and which resolve themselves into carbonic acid, carbonated hydrogen gas, and acetous acid;—that the succinic acid, united to soda, is capable of being decomposed by heat without being volatilized;—that, during this operation, a part of the elements recombine in proportions which constitute the acetous acid, as *Scheele* had observed, and as had been afterward denied by *Heyer*;—and that the nature of this acid concurs with the observations of mineralogists to assign to amber a vegetable origin.

Report of M. GUYTON *on M.* CLOUET's *Experiments concern the different States of Iron, and the Conversion of Iron into Steel.*

It is here asserted that M. CLOUET has attained the great object of fabricating *cast steel*, in a state of such perfection as to stand a comparison with the finest sorts from this country. The conversion is affected by cementing forged iron in a mixture of carbonat of lime and burnt clay. In this process, it is said, the carbonic acid of the lime-stone is decompounded by the attractions of part of the iron for charcoal, and of another part for oxygen.

Note by M. VAUQUELIN *on the Analysis of Brass; with Reflections on the Precipitation of one Metal by another.*

That one metal may precipitate another from its solution, it is not only necessary that the former have more attraction for oxygen, but that its oxyd attract the solvent with more force. In practice, when we want to separate one metal from its solution by another, in order to know its quantity, it is farther necessary that the new salt be soluble in water; that it be not decompounded by the addition of a large quantity of water; that the new oxyd be soluble in the same quantity of acid as the former; that the precipitant have not a greater tendency to decompound the solvent acid, than to take the oxygen from the dissolved metal; and that the precipitated metal be not capable of combining with the precipitant, which is commonly employed in excess.—The shortest process for analysing brass (and the author says that it is as exact as any other) is to dissolve a known quantity in nitric acid; to pour the solution into a phial with a stopper: to add caustic potash till there be an excess sensible to the taste; and to agitate the mixture immediately. After a few minutes' agitation, the whole is to be thrown on the filtre; through which the zinc passes dissolved in the potash, the oxyd of copper remaining. This being washed, and dried by a gentle heat, it is weighed; and the weight of the metal is known by deducting 0. 35, the weight of the oxygen.

Analysis of the Cobalt of Tunaberg. By M. TASSAERT.

The author finds that cobalt, so purified that no test shews the slightest vestige of iron, is perfectly obedient to the magnet.

Notice of some peculiar Matters found in Animal substances, treated by Nitric Acid. By M. WELTER.

By treating silk with nitric acid, not only oxalic acid was obtained, but a yellow matter; which, on the addition of potash, formed a triple composition that exploded like gun-powder. M. WELTER calls the third ingredient *amer*.

Observations on the Marine Acid. By M. TASSAERT.

Dr. *Girtanner* having adduced a number of facts calculated to prove that hydrogen is the radical of the marine acid, M. TASSAERT here shews the irrelevancy of these facts; which, indeed, was already obvious to every intelligent reader.

New Experiments on the Fusibility of mixed Earths, by virtue of the Action which they exert one on another. By M. GUYTON.

This able philosopher proposes to ascertain the attractions of the earths both in the dry and the moist way. The present paper contains a very few facts to this purpose.

Extract

Extract from M. Haussman's Memoir on dyeing by Solutions of Tin, and the coloured Oxyds of this Metal.

The observations contained in this paper are very interesting, not only with regard to the art of dyeing, but with respect to the chemical knowlege of the effects produced by metals at different degrees of oxygenation, the union of the oxyds with the solvents, and the compositions of which these oxyds are capable.

Notes and Correspondence respecting Calculi.

M. FOURCROY here announces that he and M. VAUQUELIN have discovered in calculi four substances, unobserved by their predecessors.—viz. urate of ammonia. 2. Ammoniaco magnesian phosphat. 3. Oxalate of lime. 4. Silex, but this has been found only in one specimen. He speaks of the solution of calculi in acids and alkalis, as so dilute as to be capable of introduction into the bladder without danger.—We shall be happy to see the complete work here announced.

Reflections on the Analysis of Stones in general. By M. VAUQUELIN.

The discovery of every new body alters the chemical tests for bodies of the same order. The author here describes the chemical processes necessary for the detection of the several earths; and they are very considerably different from those recommended by Bergman.—The present excellent paper well deserves translation. M. VAUQUELIN mentions his having found potash in the lepidolate of Rozena in Moravia, and in the green feld-spath of Siberia.

Examination and Analysis of a Quartz, crystallized exactly like Dogtooth Spar. By M. GUYTON.

M. G. concludes that this groupe was rather cast or moulded than produced by crystallization in free space. He mentions the acid of tartar as a test for potash, when mixed with soda.

We have thus pursued the series of Numbers, to as late a date as we believe they have been received in this country. We finish for the present with No. 86; and we mean to pay the earliest attention to this work in future.

ART. XII. *Principes Elémentaires*, &c.; *i. e.* Elementary Principles of the natural and chemical History of Mineral Substances. By MATHURIN-JACQUES BRISSON, Member of the National Institute, and Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry in the Central Schools of Paris. 8vo. pp. 253. Paris. 1797.

THE crowd of modern publications on scientific subjects, which are continually issuing from the press, might be

naturally divided into three classes. Some of them serve to increase our stock of knowlege; others, though containing no new discovery, are still useful on account of the clearness of arrangement by which they explain to many what is known to a few; and others may, for the most part, be considered as crude compilements, tending only to counteract instead of promoting the diffusion of true and useful science.

The work now before us seems to belong to the second class of publications, and to deserve a considerable degree of praise. It is divided into two Parts, viz. *Lithology*; in which the author treats of the earthy and stony substances; and *Metallurgy*, or the knowlege of metallic substances. He begins his *Lithology* by giving the definition and chemical characters of five primitive earths, lime, magnesia, barytes, alumina, and silica;—of the strontian and zircone, he speaks in a supplement at the end of the book. These primitive and hitherto undecompounded earths are sometimes combined with acids, and form the saline stones or terreous salts; sometimes are only mixed between them, and form the stones properly so called; and these stones sometimes are mixed together and form what is called rocks, and at other times are altered in their nature by the fire of volcanoes. The author, consequently, divides the stones into four orders; 1. Saline stones; 2. Stones properly so called; 3. Rocks; 4. Stones which are the produce of volcanic fires. Each of these orders is divided into five *genera*, answering to the simple primitive earths; and these genera are again divided into species, according to the particular combinations with several principles: except the 4th order, which is only composed of three articles, the pumex, the lava, and the basaltes.

The *Metallurgical* part of the work is divided into two orders; the first treats of the metals, and the second of the semi-metals. The metals are again divided into two *genera*; 1. Perfect, 2. Imperfect metals; according to the difference of their fixity when exposed to the action of fire. The first are gold, silver, and platina; the second are copper, iron, tin, and lead.—The semi-metals he does not separate into genera, but examines them individually, and reckons eleven, *viz.* mercury, bismuth, cobalt, nickel, zinc, antimony, tungsten, arsenic, manganese, molybdæna, and titanium. This part is concluded by tables of the properties of metallic substances under the following different heads; of their fixity when exposed to fire, ductility, fusibility, hardness, tenacity, elasticity, sonorous property, weight, oxidability, increase of weight by oxydation, affinity with the acids, acidification, and finally their adherence to mercury.

Having

Having sketched the outlines of this elementary work, it remains only to say that, though professedly the author does not intend to give any thing new, he deserves well of science on account of the clearness which pervades the whole book, and the selection of the ideas which he conveys to the young readers for whom it is chiefly designed; and for having condensed so much useful information in a small volume, without any confusion.

Art. XIII. *Voyage Pittoresque*, &c.; *i. e.* A Picturesque Tour through Syria, Palestine, Phœnicia, and the Lower Egypt; with about 330 Plates; the Original Drawings by Citizen *Cassas*, &c. Large Folio. Number I. containing Six Plates. Paris, 1798. Imported by Taylor, 56, High Holborn.

This truly magnificent work will consist of three volumes; the first of which is intended for the northern Syria, the second for Cœlosyria and Phœnicia, the third for Palestine and the Lower Egypt. Each volume will contain, besides the corresponding plates, a preliminary discourse by the celebrated *Volney*, (well known by his former publications respecting the same countries, and by his fanciful and revolutionary work entitled *The Ruins* *,) followed by a proportionate quantity of letter-press, giving an account of the excursions and observations of the author. This part of the work has been revised and digested, by Messieurs *La Porte du Theil*, *Le Grand*, and *Langles*; the first of whom superintends the historical part and the recital of the journey; the second, what concerns the architecture; and the third, what relates to the Oriental languages and inscriptions. The plates, which are to appear before the letter-press is published, will be accompanied by short explanations of the subjects represented; which is the case with respect to the six plates composing this Number.

The first of the plates before us represents the Cenotaph of Caius Cæsar, the grandchild of Augustus, situated near Hhems (the antient Emesa) in Syria; together with an Eastern Caravan, resting near the spot, and a distant prospect of Mount Lebanon. In the second, we find a view of part of the village of Cana in Galilee, in the road from Nazareth to Mount Tabor: with a fountain, and a groupe of the present inhabitants, chiefly women, dressed in their actual *costume*. The third plate gives a general perspective view of Jerusalem, in its present state, taken from the Mount of Olives, beyond the brook Cedron; affording a prospect of the Valley of Josaphat, Mount

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* See Review, N. S. vol. vi. p. 547.

Sion, and the Mosque which now occupies the place of the Temple of Solomon. The two following plates represent the whole of the front, and some particular details, of the building called *the Tomb of the Kings of Juda*; which the author, on very plausible grounds, conjectures to be of a more modern date; referable, perhaps, to the reign of Constantine the Great. He thinks that in this curious monument might be traced the Egyptian solid system of building, blended with the decorations of the Grecian Doric order, and the Roman taste in the entablature and its ornaments; while the execution of the whole appears to him to belong to the Greek artificers of the Constantine period. The sixth and last plate represents a groupe of female fortune-tellers, on the banks of the Nile, and the Turkish villas on the isle of Raoudhah, opposite to the antient Memphis.

Great taste is displayed in the composition of the original drawings, which generally convey to the beholder instructive ideas respecting both the antient and the present state of the country. The typographical part, and the engraving of the plates, are beautiful, and class this work among the most elegant productions of the French presses.

ART. XIV. *Voyage Pittoresque*, &c.; *i. e.* A Picturesque Tour through Istria and Dalmatia; the Original Drawings by M. *Cassas*, &c. &c. Folio. Numbers I. to IV. Paris, 1798. Imported by Taylor, 56, High Holborn.

A FEW years ago, the Abbé *de Saint Non* published, in France, a Picturesque Journey through the Two Sicilies, and the Count *de Choiseul-Gouffier* a similar Tour through Greece *. Their magnificent works have set an example, which we now see followed by M. *Cassas* † in his Picturesque Travels through Syria, Palestine, and the Lower Egypt, (of the first Number of which we have given an account in the preceding article,) and in this Journey through Istria and Dalmatia. According to the printed proposals, it will be comprehended in a folio volume, and the number of plates will be above sixty; of which twenty-four are given in these four Numbers, without any letter-press or explanation whatever. They represent views of the principal antient remains, and of

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* See M. Rev. vol. lviii. and lix.

† This artist had been employed by the Count *de Choiseul-Gouffier*, in quality of draftsman, during that nobleman's tour through Greece,

remarks

remarkable landscapes. The *Porta aurea* (an antient triumphal arch), the amphitheatre, and the Temple of Augustus, at Pola in Istria; the temples of Jupiter and Esculapius at Spalatro; and the remains of sarcophagi, altars, and inscriptions, at the foot of the mountain of Clissa in Dalmatia; are the most prominent objects among the antient remains; the cataracts of the river Kerka, that of the river Cettina called Welika-Gubowiza, and the grotto and cataract of the Ruecca, are truly surprising objects of romantic landscape beauty. The same taste prevails in these plates as in those of the Syrian Picturesque Journey; in both, great attention seems to have been paid to the *costume* of the present inhabitants; and they equally convey, to the eye of the beholder, striking instances of antient taste and grandeur, and actually existing ignorance and wretchedness. We have particularly noticed, in this point of view, the plate No. 27. representing the residence of the *Podestat* or chief magistrate (of Pola, as we suppose, from the number of the plate) and governor, between two antient temples of an elegant taste. Nothing could impress more forcibly on the mind, the *quantum* of decline which the country has suffered.

The size of this work is the same with that of the Syrian Picturesque Journey; and though we have seen nothing of the typographical part, except the *Prospectus* which has accompanied these Numbers, we are disposed to believe that it is as beautiful as in its sister publication.

ART. XV. *An Universal European Dictionary of Merchandize*, in the English, German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, Polish, and Latin Languages. By PHILIP ANDREW NEMNICH, I. U. L. 4to. 1l. 1s. Johnson, &c. London. 1799.

THE grand problem of an universal language will not, perhaps, be resolved by abstruse philological speculators on the best possible organization of inflective and derivative syllables:—but an approximation to the adoption of universal words has already been effected in many sciences, particularly in botany and chemistry, and is daily extending to some new branch of knowlege, to the exclusion of partial and national nomenclature. In this way, disconnected, insulated, and improper terms gradually give place to systematic, allied, and appropriate names. From books, they pass into the conversation of the cultivated, and thence into vulgar use; and thus a perpetual progress is made towards an idiom universally intelligible.

There

There is no good reason why the terms of commerce and of art should submit more reluctantly to the correction of the philologist, than those of philosophy and science. Many merchants' clerks pique themselves on adorning our magazines with sonnets: let the technical jargon of trade be bolted to the bran in the sieves of etymology; and these gentlemen will pique themselves on writing an invoice, as if they understood the words of which it consists.

We have already noticed (Rev. vol. xi. p. 561.) one attempt of M. NEMNICH to *catholicize* the phraseology of natural history; and we have now to record a similar attempt on the commercial language of Europe. The catalogue of words is arranged in the following order: English, German, Low Dutch, Danish, Swedish, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, Polish, and Latin. By these means, a single glance discovers which of the rival names is most generally intelligible,—this is one ground of preference; and, which is etymologically purer,—this is a higher motive of choice. The *lingua franca* of the counting-house is so little fettered by printed authorities, and so likely to find a convenience in varying the terms, which have most emphatically been maintained in the tariffs and books of duties of the several sea-ports, that there is no reason for despairing of introducing any rational innovation.

Terms so inexpressive or improper as Barbadoes Tar for Bitumen, Benjamin for Benjoin, Brownstone for Manganese, Dutch Pink for a yellow paint, &c. will disappear by simple exposure. Others of a somewhat vulgar complexion, such as Dragon's blood, Fistinuts, Jews' ear, Jews' trumps, Sowbread, Wake-Robin, Worm-Seed, will gradually be exchanged for terms more scientific or more polite.—A few words are mis-spelt by our author—Bellowses for Bellows, Bezoard for Bezoar, Cruel-ribbons for Crewel-ribbons, Callimanco for Calamanco, and perhaps, but for this there are many authorities, Train-oil for Drain-oil; as it is the oil which *drains* from blubber. A few others are ill defined: Canvas is not exclusively descriptive of Irish sail-cloth, but of many kinds of hempen cloth, from whatever country: 'smallcoal is not synonimous with charcoal: nor is Petty Wares the technical term for Haberdashery. A great number of words are totally omitted, particularly the names of manufactured articles of commerce—a list which might best be completed by the assistance of the riders or travellers of manufacturing houses.

To the Catholicon, or Universal Dictionary, succeeds a separate vocabulary for each language, with an English interpretation. This part of the work cannot but greatly facilitate the

the farther diffusion of our language, as the medium of commercial intercourse between the Baltic nations. As far as it goes, it is well executed: but there are in course deficiencies, which the author hopes to remedy in a future edition; and he solicits corrective contributions.

ART. XVI. *Memorias da Acad. R. das Sciencias de Lisboa*, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon. Vol. I.

[*Article concluded, see our last Appendix*, p. 551-554.]

WE now resume the consideration of this volume, in order to attend to those papers which have not yet been noticed, and which belong to the class of

MATHEMATICS.

General Solution of Kepler's *Problem of the Mensuration of Wine Pipes, and other Casks.* By J. MONTEIRO DA ROCHA.

This problem was proposed by Kepler in his *Stereometria doliorum*; and several solutions were exhibited by different mathematicians, which are considered by the present author in the first part of his memoir. He then proposes the problem according to the following form: "To determine the area of any segment of a solid of Revolution, made by a plane parallel to the axis of the same."

Memoir on the true Principles of the Method of Fluxions. By Mr. STOCKLER.

This memoir is introduced by some preliminary observations on the methods of explaining the fluxionary calculus, as given by its inventors and by succeeding geometricians. That conciseness and rigorous exactness, that perspicuity and precision, are not by the nature of things incompatible, will be readily allowed; yet, in the doctrine of fluxions, it is undoubtedly true that, whatever advantage its methods have from their generality and facility of application, they are deficient in that evidence and geometrical rigor which characterize the methods of the antient geometricians. As in the present Appendix (see the first article) this curious and important subject has been so particularly discussed, we shall here content ourselves with examining what Mr. STOCKLER has done, and with what success.

In the first part of the memoir, he animadverts with judgment on the methods pursued by Leibnitz, Newton, Maclaurin, Euler, and D'Alembert, for the purpose of elucidating and establishing the fundamental truths of the theory of fluxions. In the explanation of his own method, Mr. S. supposes quantity

tity to be generated by motion, or to pass through its several states of change either by a constant or variable flux. The common definition of a fluxion is, that it is not the quantity really generated, but what would be generated, were the motion continued uniform from any point. This quantity, however, is not immediately assignable; to ascertain it, the author reasons nearly after the following manner;—suppose the motion continually to vary then in the interval of two instants of time, during which the quantity increases, there is always a certain point at which the rate of motion is such, that, if it continued constant, for a time (t), a quantity would be generated equal to the real increment generated in variable motion. This rate of motion, or velocity, or tendency, is called the hypothetical fluxion, to distinguish it from the true and proper fluxion; and, from its definition, it follows that the product of it and the time (in which the real increment is generated) is equal to the increment; now the hypothetical fluxion (taking two instants of time) is always contained between the proper fluxions at the first and second instant; that is, is always greater than the true fluxion at the first instant, and less than the true fluxion at the second, if the motion increases; and the contrary, if the motion diminishes. By diminishing the interval of time, however, the hypothetical fluxion may be made to approach to the true fluxions more nearly than by any assignable quantity. Hence the ratio of the proper or true fluxions is the *limit* of the ratio of the hypothetical fluxions, and the real object of investigation is this limit.

Let φ be any quantity involving x, y, z, &c. $F\varphi$ a function of it; let $\Delta\varphi$ be the hypothetical fluxion of φ: then $t\Delta\varphi$ is the increment; and let $d\varphi$ represent the proper fluxion of φ, &c. Now, since φ becomes $\varphi+t\Delta\varphi$, it follows that

$$t\Delta F\varphi = F(\varphi+t\Delta\varphi)-F\varphi: \text{ hence}$$

$$\Delta F\varphi = \frac{F(\varphi+t\Delta\varphi)-F\varphi}{t}: \text{ but the limit of the ratio}$$

of the hypothetical fluxions is the ratio of the proper fluxions, which limit is obtained by putting $t=o$; in which case $\Delta\varphi$ becomes $d\varphi$, &c.

Hence $dF\varphi$ (the proper fluxion of $F\varphi$) $=\frac{F(\varphi+td\varphi)-F\varphi}{t(o)}$

but the developement for the function $F(\varphi+td\varphi)$ being $F\varphi+P'td\varphi+P''t^2d\varphi^2$, &c. we have $dF\varphi=P'd\varphi$

The quantities P', P'', P''', &c. are different functions of $F\varphi$; it appears, then, in order to find the fluxion of $F\varphi$, only necessary to calculate the second term of the series, $F\varphi+P'td\varphi+$, &c.

Such

Such is essentially the method of Mr. STOCKLER.—We shall now consider to what degree he has succeeded in rendering the *metaphysique* of fluxions luminous and exact. In the first place, the objection justly made against the method of Newton, Maclaurin, &c. is equally valid against that of Mr. S. which is grounded on the principle of motion;—a principle foreign to the nature of the subject.

By the introduction of the hypothetical fluxion, we are enabled, perhaps, to form a more distinct idea of the nature of the proper fluxion: but the grounds of the method, the fundamental principles, are not new; they are precisely the same as in the method of prime or ultimate ratios or limits; for, in this latter method, the ratio of the fluxions of quantities is the limiting ratio of their increments; which limiting ratio is obtained by putting the increment $=o$. In Mr. S.'s method, the ratio of the proper fluxions is the limiting ratio of the hypothetical fluxions; which limiting ratio is obtained by putting the time $=o$:—but the hypothetical fluxion multiplied into the time is the increment; the two methods are therefore essentially the same: that of Mr. Stockler may *appear* different, since in it are introduced a new term and a new symbol, which give to the old method a different and rather an improved appearance: but the body remains the same, the garb only is altered.

The author has combined with the theory of limits that of the developement of functions into series; it is indeed this latter theory which comprehends the true principles of the fluxionary or differential calculus; yet what he has done on this subject is to be noted as deficient; for in the Formula $F\varphi + P'w + P''w^2$, &c. the developement of $F(\varphi + w)$ is not demonstrated; neither is it shewn that all the powers of w are whole positive powers (and there are particular cases in which a fractional power enters); nor why P', P'', &c. are independent of w; nor after what manner they are derived from the original function $F\varphi$.

In the latter part of the memoir, it is observed that the formula of Taylor, for the conversion of functions into series, may be demonstrated by the help of the forms previously established. The Series of Taylor was proved in the Berlin Acts for 1772 by M. *de la Grange*, by means of the expansion of the function $f(x+i)$ into a series of the form $fx + pi + qi^2 + ri^3$, &c. and, in the same memoir, the learned author remarked that the true principles of the theory of fluxions were contained in the theory of the developement of analytic functions.

Persuaded that the theory of Mr. STOCKLER possessed the semblance only of novelty and originality, and that the method

of the limit of the hypothetical fluxions was in fact the method of the limit of the finite differences of quantities disguised by a new notation, we have been obliged to state our sentiments in express, but we hope not in harsh, terms; for we think that the present essay affords an happy presage of the future state of Science in Portugal.

After all, it can be no disgrace to the author of the present memoir to have failed, in what so many great men have failed before him; and it must be considered as highly honourable to him, to have insisted on the same steps which have led one of the first Geometricians of Europe to the discovery of the true principles of the fluxionary calculus.

Solution of the Problem proposed by the Royal Academy of Sciences, on the Method of Approximation as given by M. Fontaine. By Mr. COELHO DA MAYA.

The present volume contains two solutions of this problem. The one before us, though not prior in point of order, is so in the time of its publication. The rule proposed by M. *Fontaine* for the integration of a quantity yx is thus announced. 'The integral of the element (ydx), (y) being any function whatever of (x), is equal to the product of $\left(\frac{x}{2^n-1}\right)$, and of a series of which the terms are determined by substituting successively for x in the given function, $\frac{x}{2^n}$, $\frac{3x}{2^n}$, $\frac{5x}{2^n}$, $\frac{7x}{2^n}$, — — — $\frac{(2^n-1)x}{2^n}$; and the more exactly, the greater the whole positive number (n) is.'

The method of the demonstration of this rule is as follows: —let y be represented by φx; increase x by a quantity z, and φx becomes $\varphi(x+z)$ or by developing this function $= \varphi x + z\varphi' x + \frac{z^2\varphi'' x}{2} + \frac{z^3\varphi''' x}{2\cdot 3}$ + &c: but, since $\varphi x = y$ $\varphi' x = \frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{x}}$, $\varphi'' x = \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{x}^2}$. &c.

$\therefore y$ or φx is transformed into this series

$y + \frac{z\dot{y}}{\dot{x}} + \frac{z^2\ddot{y}}{2\dot{x}^2}$ + &c. (the series given by Taylor). Now yx is the element of an area, and therefore fyx is the area itself, which may be conceived to be divided into an infinite number of small rectangles; hence fyx is the sum of these rectangles; or, if the several ordinates be designated by

y, y',

y, y', y'', y''', &c. and their equal bases by $\frac{x}{m}$, it is plain that $\int yx^{\cdot} = \frac{x}{m}(y' + y'' + y''' + \&c)$. Now y', y'', y''', &c. may be determined by the preceding series $\left(y + \frac{zy}{x} + \&c.\right)$ by substituting for z, respectively the quantities $x\left(\frac{m-mr}{mr}\right)$, $x\left(\frac{m+r-mr}{mr}\right)$, $x\left(\frac{m+2r-mr}{mr}\right)$, &c.

After these substitutions are made for the quantities, y', y'', &c. the equation $\int yx^{\cdot} = \frac{x}{m}(y' + y'' + \&c.)$ is put into fluxions, in order to determine the relation between m and r, which relation is $r = 2m$; it likewise appears that the quantity m is infinite.

To determine that m must be of this form, 2^{n-1}. the author remarks that, since m must be a whole number and infinite, and moreover such that the equation $m = \frac{r}{2}$ may obtain generally, the quantity 2^n (n being a whole number very large) is what will satisfy all the conditions which the analysis discovers to be necessary; so that we must put $r = 2^n$, whence $m = 2^{n-1}$.

If now these values of r and m be substituted in the series which represents the value of $\int yx^{\cdot}$, it will appear that

$$\int yx^{\cdot} = \frac{x}{2^{n-1}} \begin{cases} y + x\frac{(1-2^n)}{2^n}\frac{y^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}} + \frac{x^2(1-2^n)^2}{2.2^{2n}}\frac{y^{\cdot\cdot}}{x^{\cdot 2}} + \&c. \\ y + x\frac{(3-2^n)y^{\cdot}}{2^n \cdot x^{\cdot}} + \frac{x^2(3-2^n)^2}{2.2^n}\frac{y^{\cdot\cdot}}{x^{\cdot 2}} + \&c. \\ \text{— — — —} \qquad \text{— —} \\ y + \cdot x\frac{(2^n-1-2n)y^{\cdot}}{2^n x^{\cdot}} + x^2\frac{(2^n-1-2n)^2 y^{\cdot\cdot}}{2.2^{2n}.\ x^{\cdot 2}} + \&c \end{cases}$$

where the first row, or series, is what arises by substituting in the function (y), $\frac{x}{2^n}$ for x;

the second series is the value of y, putting in it $\frac{3x}{2}$ for x &c.

the last is the value of y, putting $\frac{2^n-1}{2^n}x$ instead of x;

and it is thus that the truth of M. *Fontaine*'s rule is shewn. The greater or less degree of proximity to the truth which this rule has, according as the quantity n is greater or less, appears, says

says the author of the present memoir, from this consideration; that the calculus is only exact when 2^n is an infinite number; and therefore, the true value of the integral will be more nearly assigned, the greater the whole positive number n is.

After having examined the above method of M. COELHO DA MAYA, we are not inclined to rank the demonstration which he has exhibited among those which are recommended by their evidence, their exactness, or their conciseness; the latter quality, perhaps, the nature of the question itself makes not of easy attainment; yet a stricter adherence to the *rigor geometricus* would have been no ill compensation for any defect which might arise, for too minute a particularity, or for too expanded a developement. The demonstration which we have been considering is formed on a plan, and on principles, too similar to those which are admitted in the method of Infinities; a method that needs not now be called to the aid of the mathematician, who knows the various and many improvements which the Analytic Art has of late years received. Moreover, the way of proving the convergency of the results to the truth (the convergency dependent on the value of n) is by no means an eligible one:—to reason downwards, from infinite to finite, is to depart from the natural and obvious course of mathematical investigation, and indeed of investigation of any kind.

The sole object of the present memoir is not the demonstration of M. *Fontaine*'s rule. The author compares this rule, on the grounds of conciseness and commodiousness, with others by which certain computations may be made and expressions obtained; such, for instance, as the expressions for the sine and cosine of an arc. He also makes some observations on the convergency of series, and shews how a series that converges slowly may be made to converge more quickly; for instance, the series $x - \frac{x^3}{2.3} +$ &c. which expresses the sine of an arc x, converges with sufficient rapidity if x be small (30°): but, if the arcs be very great, the series diverges while $2(m-1)(2m-1)$ is x^2; for, since the m^{th} term is

$$\frac{x^{2m-1}}{2.3 \text{ — — } 2(m-1)(2m-1)}$$ the $\overline{m-1}^{th}$ term is

$$\frac{x^{2m-3}}{2.3 \text{ — — — } 2(m-2)(2m-3)}$$ and therefore the ratio between these terms is $\frac{x^2}{2(m-1)(2m-1)}$; which is greater than unity if $2(m-1)(2m-1)$ be $< x^2$. Hence, in great arcs,

arcs, this series is very incommodious, since so many terms must be calculated before the series converges; converge it always will, since, by increasing m, the quantity $2(m-1)(2m-1)$ must ultimately exceed x. The series, however, may be rendered very commodious for practice, by the substitution of another arc for x, which has the same sign.

The merit of this remark does not belong to (and probably it is not claimed by the author of this memoir; it is to be appropriated to M. *D'Alembert*, who first made it in his *Opuscules Mathematiques*.

Other instances are given of transformed series, which converge more quickly than given series; the log. $1+x=x-\frac{x^2}{2}+\frac{x^3}{3}$ &c. which does not converge if x be greater than 1, may be transformed into another which shall always converge, however great x be, by putting $z=\frac{x}{1+x}$. This transformation we could likewise refer to its author; but Mr. Cosme da Maya, in all probability, meets these observations not as his own, but because they were pertinent to the subject of which he was treating.

Additional Considerations on the Rule of M. Fontaine, to resolve by Approximation the Problems reduced to Quadratures. By Mr. Monteiro da Rocha.

The demonstration of this rule was the subject of the memoir of Mr. *Coelho de Maya*, which we have already considered. The author of the present memoir divides it into six sections; in the first of which he considers what is the true object of demonstration, and the course most natural and obvious to be pursued towards the attainment of it. He remarks that the equation $m=2^{n-1}$ (m being one of the equal parts into which the abscissa is divided) is not to be adopted by an arbitrary assumption, but must flow from the nature and peculiar circumstances of the operations employed in the investigation; for, if such an assumption as $m=2^{n-1}$ could be made, the demonstration of M. *Fontaine*'s rule would be a matter of the slightest difficulty. The proof of this rule, as given by the present writer, is of the inductive kind; for instance: if $y=\phi x$ (x being the abscissa, and y the ordinate, and ϕx a function of x) he first erects an ordinate from the middle point of the abscissa, and draws a tangent to the point where the ordinate meets the abscissa; which tangent, meeting the two extreme ordinates, forms a trapezium of which the area is consequently $=x\phi\frac{x}{2}$: which is greater or less than the area of the curve, as the curve is concave or convex to its axis; the next step is to divide each

half of the abscissa into two other halfs, to erect ordinates at the point of bisection, to draw tangents, &c. so as to form two new trapeziums, the sum of the areas of which is easly determined to be $\frac{x}{2}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{4}+\varphi\frac{3x}{4}\right)$; which is the second approximation, and nearer to the true area of the curve than the former. Proceeding in a similar manner by the bisection of the parts of the abscissa, the third approximation will appear to be $\frac{x}{4}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{8}+\varphi\frac{3x}{8}+\varphi\frac{5x}{8}+\frac{7x}{8}\right)$; and thus, if the abscissa be divided into 2^n parts, it is inferred by induction that the value of the area of $\int yx^0$ would be nearly $\frac{x}{2^{n-1}}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^n}+\varphi\frac{3x}{2^n}+\varphi\frac{5x}{2^n}+\text{---}+\varphi\frac{2^n-1}{2^n}x\right)$

In the second section is investigated the convergency of M. *Fontaine*'s rule. According to that gentleman, the results should be more and more exact, the greater the number n is; and it becomes an object of inquiry what is the degree of convergency which obtains among the several results, substituting for n successively the numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. A theorem is proposed, by which this degree of convergency, under certain restrictions, may be estimated; and the theorem is this:—if any curve be terminated by 2 finite ordinates, and is always convex towards the same parts, and its area be estimated according to the method of M. *Fontaine*, then, substituting for n all the natural numbers in their order, the errors of any two successive results are ultimately in the ratio of 4 to 1. The demonstration of this theorem is founded on the truth of the 5th Corollary of the 11th Lemma of the Principia; and the author, considering farther under what circumstances the corollary of Newton takes place, proposes to estimate the convergency of the several approximations by examining the magnitude and position of the radius of curvature.

In the third section, the writer considers what consequences follow from the inquiry instituted in the second section.

In section IV, we find a method of rendering the rule more converging; as follows: in the substitution of a number n, let the result be R, with an error u; then, in the substitution of $n+1$, the result is R' with an error $\frac{u}{4}$ nearly (as appears in the second section): hence $\int x^0\,\varphi x = R+u$ and $\int x^0\,\varphi x = R'+\frac{u}{4}$ $\therefore u = \frac{4(R'-R)}{3}$ and $\int x^0\,\varphi x = \frac{4(R'-R)}{3}$: but, by the form given by M. *Fontaine*, it appears that

$$R = \frac{x}{2^{n-1}}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^n}+\varphi\frac{3x}{2^n}+\varphi\frac{5x}{2^n}+\text{---}+\varphi\frac{2^n-1x}{2^n}\right)$$

and

and $R' = \frac{x}{2^n}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^{n+1}} + \varphi\frac{3x}{2^{n+1}} + \varphi\frac{5x}{2^{n+1}} \cdots + \varphi\frac{2^{n+1}-1}{2^{n+1}}x\right)$

hence $\int x \cdot \varphi x = \frac{4R' - R}{3} = \frac{x}{3 \cdot 2^{n-1}}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^{n+1}} + \varphi\frac{3x}{2^{n+1}} + \varphi\frac{2^{n+1}}{2^{n+1}}x\right)$

$$\frac{x}{3 \cdot 2^{n-1}}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^n} + \varphi\frac{3x}{2^n} + \varphi\frac{5x}{2^n} \cdots + \varphi\frac{2^n-1}{2^n}x\right)$$

where the series converges much more quickly than in M. *Fontaine*'s form. This series is applied to investigate the logarithm of 2 $\left(f\frac{x}{1+x}\right.$ when $x = 1$ and the arc of 45° $\left(f\frac{x}{1+x^2}\right.$ when $x = 1$)

In the fifth section, is given a second method for making the series more converging, which admits of a more extensive application than the former. The new formula for the integral of $x \cdot \varphi x$ is

$$\frac{x}{2^n - 1}\left(\varphi\frac{x}{2^n} + \varphi\frac{3x}{2^n} + \&c. + \varphi\frac{2^{n-1}x}{2^n}\right)$$

$$\frac{+x^3}{3 \cdot 2^{3n}}\left(\varphi'\frac{x}{2^n} + \varphi'\frac{3x}{2^n} + \&c. + \varphi'\frac{2^n - 1}{2^n} + \right)$$

$$\frac{+x^5}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5\, 2^{5n}}\left(\varphi''\frac{x}{2^n} + \&c. \;\&c.\right.$$

$$+ \&c. + \&c.$$

where $\varphi'x$, $\varphi''x$ &c. are functions derived from φx.

Section VI. treats of those cases, in which neither M. *Fontaine*'s method nor the two preceding can take place.

After all deductions have been made, there will still remain a very considerable portion of merit due to these mathematical papers. The cultivation of science in Portugal is commenced, and its cultivators will daily acquire new skill and richer materials. If we hope that this new society may emulate that famous Academy which is now no more, we hope for it a portion of fame which none but an enthusiast will despise; if we hope that it may experience a better fate, we shall not less express the benevolence of our wishes, nor the reasonableness of our expectations.

Eulogium of M. d'Alembert. By M. GARÇAÕ STOCKLER.

M. *d'Alembert* was a member of this Academy, and this tribute of praise has in consequence been here paid to his memory. Few particulars of his life are related in it, and these are already well known to the literary world. The most essential part of the eulogium, and which stamps some value

on it, is the analysis of all the works of this celebrated genius to which task the author of this paper, who is a mathematician *, seems to have rendered himself competent by a deep study of them. The oratorical part of the paper is chiefly of a panegyrical cast, unlike the academical eulogies of Fontenelle, which are the true models of such compositions. The author of a panegyric writes as a warm admirer, who does not wish to find any fault in the object of it; while the writer of an academical eulogium assumes a more impartial tone, which gives more weight to the praise which he bestows. We shall not however throw much blame on a mathematician, for being a warm admirer of *d'Alembert*.

For an account of *Condorcet*'s ample eulogium on this celebrated man, see M. Rev. vol. lxxvi. p. 238.

This volume is terminated by a catalogue of books composed by several members of the society, and printed by order of the Academy; from which circumstance, it appears that the labours of this literary body have been directed to instruct and enlighten the Portuguese in many different branches of knowlege. We have so few opportunities of receiving Portuguese books, that it will, probably, excite the curiosity of many of our readers, to peruse this catalogue of recent publications in that part of Europe.

1. *Breves Instrucçoẽs*, &c. Short Directions to the Correspondents of the Academy, relative to collecting natural Objects for the Institution of a National Museum. 8vo pamphlet.

2. *Memorias Sobre*, &c. Memoirs on the Method of perfecting the Manufacture of Oil in Portugal, presented to the Academy by Mr. DALLA BELLA. 1 vol. 4to.

3. *Memoria Sobre a Cultura*, &c. Memoir on the Cultivation of the Olive Tree in Portugal, presented to the Academy by the same Author. 1 vol. 4to.

4. *Memorias de Agricultura*, &c. Memoirs of Agriculture, which have obtained Prizes from the Academy. 2 vols. 8vo.

5. *Paschalis Josephi Freirii Mellii, de Historia Juris Civilis Lusitani Liber singularis.* 1 vol. 4to.

6. *Ejusdem Institutiones Juris Civilis et Criminalis Lusitani.* 5 vols. 4to.

7. *Osmia*, a Tragedy, which obtained a Prize from the Academy. 4to pamphlet.

8. *Vida*, &c. Life of Edward, Infant of Portugal, by A. DE REZENDE. 8vo. pamphlet.

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* A *memoir* by M. STOCKLER, on fluxions, has been noticed in this article.

9. *Vestigios*, &c. Remains of the Arabic Language in Portugal, or Etymological Lexicon of the Portuguese Words and Names of Arabic Origin, composed by Order of the Academy, by Fr. John de Souza. 1 vol. 4to.

10. Dominici Vandelli, *Viridarium Grysley Lusitanicum, Linnæanis Nominibus illustratum.* 1 vol. 8vo.

11. *Ephemerides*, &c. Nautical Ephemerides, or Astronomical Diary for the Year 1789; calculated for the Meridian of Lisbon. 1 vol. 4to. The same for every succeeding year till 1798 inclusive.

12. *Memorias Economicas*, &c. Economical Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon. 4 vols. 4to.

13. *Collecçaõ*, &c. Collection of inedited Books of Portuguese History, relative to the Reigns of John the 1st, Edward, Alphonsus the 5th, and John the 2d. 3 vols. folio.

14. *Avisos*, &c. Interesting Advices respecting apparent Deaths. 8vo pamphlet.

15. *Tratado*, &c. Treatise on the Physical Education of Children, for the Use of the People of Portugal, by Francis de Mello Franco. 1 vol. 4to.

16. *Documentos*, &c. Arabic Documents of Portuguese History, transcribed from the Originals in the Tower of Tombo, (the Royal Archives in Portugal,) and published with the Portuguese Translation, by Fr. John de Souza. 1 vol. 4to.

17. *Observaçõe*s, &c. Observations on the principal Causes of the Decline of the Portuguese Power in Asia, written by *Diego de Couto*, &c. by Mr. Amaral. 1 vol. 8vo.

18. Flora Cochinchinensis *sistens Plantas in Regno Cochinchina nascentes. Labore ac Studio* Johannis de Loureiro, *Regiæ Scientiarum Ulyssiponensis Academiæ Socii.* 2 vols. 4to.

19. *Synopsis Chronologica*, &c. Chronological Synopsis of Materials for the History and Study of Portuguese Literature. By Mr. Figueiredo. 2 vols. 4to.

20. *Tratado*, &c. Treatise on the Physical Education of Children, for the Use of the People of Portugal, by M. Almeyda. 1 vol. 4to.

21. *Obras Poeticas*, &c. Poetical Works of Peter Andrade Caminha. 1 vol. 8vo.

22. *Advertencias*, &c. Advices respecting the right or wrong Use of the Mineral Waters of Caldas da Rainha, by Mr. Tavares. 4to. pamphlet.

23. Memoirs of Portuguese Literature. 6 vols. 4to.

24. *Fontes proximas*, &c. The immediate Sources of the Code of Portugal of Philip the 2d, by Mr. Ferreira Gordo. 1 vol. 4to.

25. *Diccionario*, &c. Dictionary of the Portuguese Language. 1 vol. folio.

26. *Compendio*, &c. Abridgment of the Theory of Limits, or Introduction to the Method of Fluxions, by Mr. STOCKLER, Member of the Academy. 1 vol. 4to.

27. *Ensayo*, &c. An Economical Essay on the Trade of Portugal, and its Colonies, by Mr. AZEREDO COUTINHO. 1 vol. 4to.

28. *Tratado*, &c. Treatise on the Art of Surveying Lands, by Mr. CABRAL. 1 vol. 8vo.

29. *Analyse*, &c. Chemical Analysis of the Mineral Waters of Caldas, by Dr. Withering, Member of the Academy. Published in English and Portuguese, by Order of the Society.

If any of the more recent publications here enumerated should reach our hands, we shall endeavour to make our readers farther acquainted with their contents.

ART. XVII. *Floræ Danicæ Iconum Fasciculus Vicesimus.* Folio. *Hafniæ*, 1797. Sold in London by Mr. White.

THE descriptions which accompany these excellent engravings are so extremely brief, that we cannot pretend to give a very critical account of the performance; especially as it is impossible for us to gain access to the *plants* which are here represented: but we scruple not to avow our full persuasion that the plates are indeed most admirably executed. The publication of this work commenced in the year 1761; and it has been continued with uncommon regularity, considering the nature of the undertaking, and the accidents and interruptions to which, in a series of so many years, it must naturally have been exposed.

ART. XVIII.

M. GIRARD (*Ingénieur des Ponts et des Chaussées*) has published a treatise on the Resistance of Solids. Of this work, in point of criticism, we are unable at present, from want of time, to say any thing definite: but a superficial glance over its contents, and a hasty perusal of some of its parts, afford us reason to think that it is by no means an unimportant nor an ill-executed work. It is divided into four sections, the first two of which are purely theoretical; the third contains experiments made on the resistance of oak and fir; and the fourth is particularly destined to theoretical considerations and experiments, relative to the inflexion of bodies supposed to be perfectly elastic. What is written seems to be written with considerable perspicuity, and the experiments apparently have been made with method and exactness. In our next Appendix, we shall be able to give a fuller and more particular account of the work.

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